

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For SEPTEMBER, 1788.

An Essay towards a System of Mineralogy. By Axel Frederic Cronstedt. The Second Edition, greatly enlarged and improved, by the Addition of the modern Discoveries; and by a new Arrangement of the Articles, by John Hyacinth de Magellan. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. in Boards. Dilly.

OUR readers are not unacquainted with the merits of Cronstedt's System, or with what mineralogists had reason to expect from this new edition. In tracing the progress of mineralogical arrangements, we mentioned, with particular respect, (vol. LXII. p. 56.) the work of Cronstedt, and announced the volumes now before us. M. de Magellan has fulfilled every thing that we had expected; and has given us a new edition of a valuable work, corrected or illustrated by the labours of thirty years, in which this subject has engaged the attention of philosophers of every nation, in every climate. It was the intention of the editor, as we remarked in our 'Intelligence,' to preserve the text of Cronstedt entire, and to add the improvements in notes. This method we approved of, for the reasons which we then assigned; but the various new discoveries, the additional substances ascertained to be distinct genera, would have occasioned numerous, contradictory notes, and a broken, or a confused order. M. de Magellan, therefore, changed his plan: he now gives a new arrangement; and this we cannot disapprove, since, by an attentive reference to the sections of Cronstedt, and a particular care in preserving the series of the original author, our objects in preserving the first plan are completely satisfied. As the original English edition is in every good library, we shall give an account of the additional paragraphs, and select from these, or the correcting notes, what may seem to be particularly curious or useful: of the many novelties in this volume, we have already, in our progress, anticipated a great part.

Of the class of earths, the first order, as in Cronstedt, is the calcareous. We first find additions, under the title of observations on 'marle and arable soil.' There are also, at the end, some additional remarks to the preceding sections, and a

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description of the compounds of calcareous earths. We shall extract the valuable remarks of our author on marles, as they contain volumes of instruction in a few lines, and on a subject which has been imperfectly treated of in English, and is little understood by our farmers.

‘——It is highly probable, that the good effects of marle in agriculture, depend from the circumstances of the soil, by supplying it with that part of clay and chalk, which is wanting to make up the best proportion of its component parts. That this is the case in many instances, is evident by the judicious experiments of professor Bergman, which show, that, in Sweden, the best arable land of a flat ground, where about 15 inches of rain fall yearly, contains 4 parts of clay, 3 of siliceous earth or sand, 2 of chalk, and 1 of magnesian or soapy earth, viz. that which constitutes the basis of Epsom salt. These proportions must vary according to the local circumstances of the ground and climate of each country. But after the discovery of such a leading principle, no rational farmer can be excuseable hereafter, if he does not take the necessary steps to ascertain the most advantageous proportion of these component parts, that are suitable to his soil, and does not improve it accordingly, by employing such manures as tend to supply their deficiency. The above learned professor practised this method in his own country to the utmost advantage: and there is not the least doubt but the general ignorance of farmers in this respect has been the cause of continued blunders, and numberless wrong practices in husbandry, such as throwing chalk or lime on grounds which wanted clay, or sand, and the like. By such blind proceedings many valuable means of rural improvement have been brought to common discredit, which if properly applied would be extremely profitable in their respective circumstances.’

The two last additional sections are chiefly taken from Mr. Kirwan's work, which was published after the first sheets of M. de Magellan's translation had been printed.

The second order is the ponderous earth; and the new sections are the ponderous earth, and the aerated ponderous earth; the other species were known to Cronstedt; but their nature was not understood.

Magnesia, as a distinct earth, was not known in the time of the original author: of the third order, therefore, we find the articles of magnesia and Epsom salt added. There are also some observations on serpentines, by the present translator.

The fifth order contains the siliceous earths; and, to the former translation, many additional observations were subjoined by M. Engestrom: these are preserved; and new sections occur on the amethyst, garnet, tourmalin, lapis nephriticus, the hydrophanous stone called *oculus mundi*; on the

moon-stone, with some observations on cherts and jaspers. The other new species are, Labrador stone, white felspar, rowley rag-stone, siliceous muriatic spar, and Turkey stone. The following description of Labrador stone will probably appear to our readers as uncommon.

* Labrador stone, *Spatum rutilum versicolor*. It is but a few years ago (9 or 12) that this beautiful stone began to be known in Europe: it is brought from the coast of Labrador, where the Moravians, who have a colony among the Ekimaux, first discovered it. Its colour is commonly of a light or of a deep grey, and mostly of a blackish grey: but when held in certain positions to the light, discovers different varieties of beautiful shining colours, as lazuly-blue, grass-green, apple-green, pea-green; and seldom a citron-yellow: some have an intermediate colour betwixt red-copper and tombac-grey; besides other colours between grey and violet. These colours are seen for the most part in spots; but sometimes in stripes, on the same piece.

These stones are found of an angular form, in pretty large pieces. Their specific gravity is 2,755. Their fracture appears foliated: and the broken parts are rhomboidal: they are semi-transparent: and in other respects agree with the felt spar.

The argillaceous earth was better known to Cronstedt than any other order, except the calcareous. The new genera are, therefore, only the argilla aërata, argillaceous fissile stones, pyritaceous and bituminous schistus, flagstone, argillaceous grit, and killas rock.

Of the saline class there are many new bodies, which are described with a suitable accuracy by our editor, but we need only mention the titles, as we have had frequent occasion of describing their different properties. The new acids are, the nitrous, fluor, arsenicated, molybdenic, tungstenic, phosphoric, boracic, succinous, and aerial. These do not, indeed, all appear in their simple forms as minerals, and this was the line of distinction which Cronstedt seemed inclined to draw; but it would not be right to omit bodies, with which it is necessary to be acquainted, because they have not yet appeared uncombined. Nature still affords us, in every step, something that we knew not before; and, to complete the system, these considerations are indispensable.

The second order contains the alkalis; and the appearance of the vegetable fixed alkali reminds us of another circumstance, in which M. de Magellan has extended the bounds of Cronstedt. This substance was undoubtedly omitted, because it seems to be the production of art; yet, as it probably is not the effect of incineration, it must be drawn by plants from the earth, and we may at some future period detect it in bodies

not yet supposed to contain it, from which it has not been derived, in consequence of the decomposition of vegetables.

The third order of neutrals contains vitriolated tartar, nitre, digestive salt, mild vegetable alkali, cubic nitre, natron, vitriolic and nitrous ammoniac, with the aerated volatile alkali; and observations on the preceding salts are subjoined.

The earthy neutral salts added to the list of Cronstedt are nitre of lime; aerated chalk; vitriolated, muriatic and aerated barytes; vitriolated, nitrated, muriatic, and aerated magnesia; muriatic argil. The following observations on alum will be considered as curious; and we hope to have an opportunity of explaining these subjects farther.

What is called Roman alum, has been considered as the best sort; it has a rosy-coloured cast. It is manufactured at Tolfa near Civita Vecchia, and contains about five per centum of a rose-coloured earth, whose nature professor Bergman did not ascertain, *but, says he, we know for certain that the goodness of the alum does not depend upon it.* M. de Morveau suspects this colour to proceed from some slight mixture of iron. That from the manufacture of Brunswick has the same colour, which seems to proceed from the mixture of cobalt, which it has been discovered to contain, both by professor Bergman and Mr. Erxleben; but it seems to have some different properties from the Roman alum; and on my enquiring from Mr. Waugh, a capital salter-druggist in London, whether the rosy-coloured alum called Roman, was preferred by our manufacturers to the white alum, he answered in the negative. Mr. Gustav Von Engestrom, counsellor at the Board of Mines in Stockholm, to whom I am indebted for my attachment to mineralogical subjects, since I had the happiness of his acquaintance when he visited this country about twenty years ago, wrote to me in 1783, that he has discovered an easy and infallible method for purifying alum from the smallest mixture of iron, which is a desideratum in the dying business, and very worthy of the attention of our manufacturers. The same gentleman has also discovered a method of purifying salt-petre from any mixture of marine salt, which is a great acquisition for the manufacture of gun-powder; he has besides sent me a specimen of canvass so prepared, that it cannot take fire, a circumstance which might be of great advantage to prevent the decorations, in the play-houses and other public places, from taking fire. He was then about to publish a chemical work, the first part of which treats of the refining of gold and silver; but it being in the Swedish language, I must wait, with most English readers, for its translation into a more common idiom, to profit by the great knowledge and skill of this most able chemist.

The fifth order contains the metallic salts; and the new ones described are, muriatic copper; aerated iron; vitriol of cobalt,

cobalt, and of nickel; and muriatic manganese; to which are added, observations on metallic salts. Of the triple salts, the chief added by M. de Magellan are, the additions to magnesia and alum.

The third class contains the inflammables, with many subjects which require and deserve remark. M. de Magellan is a believer of the doctrine of Stahl, or rather of Becher, relating to phlogiston, though he doubts of the composition of water; and, in his additions and corrections, gives a short account of an Essay by Dr. Priestley*, which we expect to see very soon in the Philosophical Transactions, designed to show, that the water, which appears after the explosion of pure and inflammable airs, was really a constituent part of these airs. In the introduction to this class M. de Magellan gives an account of Scheele's and Crawford's Systems, with some arguments in support of each. He then proceeds to the new articles, inflammable and hepatic airs. The additions to plumbago, which Cronstedt inserted under the inflammables, are numerous; and our editor seems to lean towards the opinion of Pelletier, who opposes the analysis of Scheele. The notes on ambergrise are curious, and it is with much pleasure that we see our opinion (vol. LVII. p. 88.) of the origin of this substance so well supported, after having heard Dr. Swediaur's very often celebrated as a discoverer of something important. M. de Magellan thinks the appearance of ambergrise in the faces of a whale, to be the effect of disease, in consequence of the animal having swallowed this indigestible substance; that it was originally the inspissated juice of the cuma, a tree of Guiana, described by M. Aublet. We suggested a similar remark, from Rumphius and Rouelle: the latter drew his intelligence from Aublet. There is, indeed, much reason to suppose, that many inflammables of this kind are really of vegetable origin, though found as fossils, and probably changed by the admixture of some fossil matter, perhaps of an acid. This was Dr. Fothergill's opinion, and is the opinion of our editor. If the following substance is not of vegetable origin, it is more particularly curious: in colour and consistency, it exactly resembles the caoutchouc resin.

'It is of a dark brown colour, almost black; and some is found of a yellowish brown-cast, like the same gum-resin.

'With respect to its elastic consistence, it hardly can be distinguished from it, except in the cohesion of its particles, which is weaker.

'It has the same property of rubbing off from paper the traces of black-lead pencils.

'It burns likewise with a smoky flame; and also melts into

* It will be noticed in our next Number.

a thick oily fluid; but emits a disagreeable smell, like the fossil pitch, or Barbadoes-tar of the last section.

‘ It is found in the same earthy and stony beds as petrol; namely, among spar and lead-ores; and some lumps of this hard substance (viz. the asphaltum of the following section) are found in the same spot along with it.

‘ Some specimens of this fossil are of a cylindrical form, like bits of thin branches or stalks of vegetables, though much more flexible, being perfectly elastic.

‘ Upon the whole, this fossil seems to confirm the opinion already mentioned, note to page 466, of those mineralogists, who believe that these oily combustibles derive their origin from the vegetable kingdom. It seems worth trying, whether pieces of asphaltum, buried in damp beds of sparry rubbish, or other kinds of earths, would take the same elastic consistence.

‘ But since many beds of shells and other fossil substances, both of the vegetable and animal kind, as impressions of various plants, and the remains of various quadrupeds, &c. have been found in different parts of the globe, whose individual species undoubtedly exist no longer alive unless in far distant climates, and in the most remote countries from the spot where their exuvia are dugged out; why should we not allow that this new fossil may be the same original elastic gum, now growing naturally in Brazil, China, and other hot climates, only altered in its smell, and in the tenacity of its particles, by the long standing during centuries, and even myriads of years, buried in the bowels of the earth?

‘ This elastic petrol was found in 1785, near Casselton, in the county of Derbyshire, in England, but in very inconsiderable quantities, of which I got some very small pieces.’

The other new articles are jet, and the various coals and peats left unnoticed by Cronstedt. The accounts are chiefly taken from Mr. Kirwan, except the article of stone-turf. The account of lord Dundonald’s separation of tar from coal, and his method of coaking, is short, but curious; and we mention it, because an improvement of such vast importance has not been sufficiently attended to.

The class of the perfect metals is rendered very complete, by the additions of M. de Magellan. He has added some very curious and important observations on gold; a description of arsenico-martial silver ore; of silver mineralized by sulphur, with iron, arsenic, and cobalt; of the same mineral, with regulus of antimony and barytes; of combustible silver; of silver goose-dung ore, and foliaceous silver ore. Of quicksilver he has described various ores, unknown to Cronstedt, as mercury united to gold; impure and pyritous cinnabars; mercury mineralized with silver by the aerial acid; pyritous mercurial ores; with silver and other metals, and the mineral of
mercury,

mercury, by marine and vitriolic acids. The observations on the specific gravity of mercury are very important; and, as we have lately noticed some causes of error in barometrical measurements, we must extract also the following.

‘ Before I dismiss the subject, I must beg leave to give a specimen, or two, of the enormous blunders committed by various philosophers and numerous pretenders, who have been extremely busy in our times, to determine the heights of mountains, and the relative position of places above the level of the sea; by means of barometrical observations, without paying any particular attention to the specific gravity of the mercury, with which their barometers were made. If the two barometers were both at 30 inches high, and equally circumstanced in every other respect, excepting only their specific gravity of the quicksilver; so that one be filled with the first kind I have tried, viz. whose specific gravity was = 13,62 and the other = 13,45.

‘ In this case, and in all probability many of this kind have often occurred, the error must have been no less than 327 feet; because the heights of the mercurial columns in each barometer must be in the inverse ratio of their specific gravities: viz. 13,45 : 13,62 :: 30 : 30,379.

Now the logarithm of 30 = 4771.21

ditto of 30,379 = 4825.73

the difference is = 54.52

which difference shows, that there are 54.52 fathoms between one place and another, or 327, feet; though in reality both places are on the same level.

‘ But if the specific gravity of the mercury, in the two barometers, were as the two above mentioned by Bergman and Fourcroy; viz. one of 14,110, and the other of 13,000, which may happen to be the case, as the heaviest is commonly reputed the purest mercury; on this supposition the error must have amounted to 35,576 toises, or above 2134 feet and a half; because 13,000 : 14,110 :: 30 : 32,561

Now the logarithm of 30 = 4771.21

and that of 32,561 = 5126.97

the difference is = 355.76; which shows that the error should amount to so many fathoms; or 2134,5 feet.’

The second order of the fourth class of metals, contains the base metals. We find among the novelties, native and crystallised tin; aurum musivum; native lead, and the same metal mineralized by the vitriolic, phosphoric, and arsenicated acids, with an account of stony and sandy lead ores. The additions which relate to copper are numerous: the cupreous stones; copper, with silver and arsenic, or with arsenic and zinc, and mineralized by the muriatic acid, share the editor’s

attention. Some observations on copper, with a description of native iron, are also inserted in this new edition. We are sorry that we cannot give a particular account of the many curious additions to this part of Cronstedt's work. They add greatly to the value of M. de Magellan's edition; and we would particularly notice his remarks on iron. The native iron of Siberia, and perhaps all the other native iron, is supposed, with some justice, to have been produced in volcanos. It is a little singular, that, by some manufactures, iron, a metal more common than any other, becomes six hundred and thirty times more valuable than gold. These manufactures are best pendulum watch-springs.

The new semi-metallic bodies are, the ores of bismuth, mineralized by vitriolic acid, and by sulphur and arsenic; native zinc, zeolitiform zinc ore, and glans blende; antimony mineralized by the aerial acid; native nickel; native manganese; the perigord stone, and black wad. Some account of the pretended siderite and saturnite is also added.

The Appendix of Cronstedt contains the heterogeneous stones, or those stones formed of visibly different substances, petrefactions, decomposed earths, and natural flags, or volcanic productions. These M. de Magellan has shortly elucidated by notes; but we perceive no additions in the text. In reality, the list might have been properly shortened, and most of the different bodies arranged with those contiguous to them, in a natural order. The most extensive notes are on the volcanic productions; and our editor gives, in a short compass, a very accurate and comprehensive account of volcanos, and their different productions. Basaltes, with the best naturalists, he considers as volcanic, and to have been formed either by crystallization, or retraction. It must be allowed, that volcanos sometimes rest on limestone; but it is in the same way that it appears through the granite in the following very curious observation, viz. by bursting through it from some subjacent stratum.

' Mr. Latrobe told me that he had seen in Upper Lusatia, in the manor of Bertholdsdorff near Herrnhut, the chief settlements of the Moravian brethren, a rock of granite, which apparently bursts asunder by a vein of concentric basaltes. This seems to have a communication with a conic hill of considerable height, called the Hutberg, which consists of basaltes covered with mould, and has several parties of basaltic columns at the top: the country all around is covered with large blocks of granite.'

The heat of volcanos he attributes to the spontaneous inflammation of phlogistic bodies; and their vast force to the
water

water which they meet with, or which *the inflammable and pure air extracted by heat may perhaps form*, expanded into vapour. In the Giants Causeway, the basaltic evidently rest on lime-stone; but then the fluid lava seems to have ran over the lime-stone. We have no evidence that lime-stone strata ever become the materials of a volcano; the calcareous earth, in lavas, is in a small uncertain proportion, and most probably derived from water, or accidental mixture.

The second Appendix contains M. Engeström's very useful description of a mineralogical pocket-laboratory, and the use of the blow-pipe. To this Essay, M. de Magellan has made some useful additions in the notes, particularly on the effects of the stream of flame from the blow-pipe, on some earths and mineralized metals, on which the author had not tried it. These additions are chiefly from Bergman.

The third Appendix, the first of our editor, contains a description of the pocket-laboratories for assaying minerals in the dry, in the humid way, and by the lamp-furnace, which performs various operations with great convenience.

The second Appendix of M. de Magellan contains the analysis of earths and stones, by Mr. Kirwan; a description of a new instrument for finding specific gravities, by Mr. Nicholson, inserted in the second volume of the Manchester Memoirs: it was shortly noticed in our LXIst vol. p. 350; and an easy and cheap method of making original weights, by the editor.

We must not leave M. de Magellan without thanking him for this new edition of a very valuable work. It is not a new translation, for our editor seems to be unacquainted with the Swedish, and of course not able to avail himself of the assistance of the new edition of Cronstedt, mentioned in our LXIId volume. The language is, however, in many places, corrected; and our editor's assistant, for he professes to be not accurately acquainted with the English, has discharged his office very well. On the whole, these volumes are very interesting to the mineralogist, and useful to the philosopher. M. de Magellan has given a very accurate account of the various bodies, whose nature and properties are already known; or, to speak more accurately, which were known about the middle of last year. He has not arrogantly assumed to himself merit which he does not possess; for, with the most rigid, the most scrupulous exactness, he attributes every observation to its proper author.

Observations on the Diseases of the Army in Jamaica. By John Hunter, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Nicol.

IT is with peculiar pleasure that we have read this work. Dr. Hunter, with Hippocratic plainness, tells us what he saw, and what he thought: the former is faithful and the latter judicious. If we meet with no finely spun theories, or the cobweb texture of a system, the student of nature will not be less pleased with it; for nature rejects systems, and will elude, in some moment of capricious change, what has appeared to stand on the best foundation. Every thing in medicine is general, nothing is universal.

Dr. Hunter gives a medical description of Jamaica, its heat, its soil, and the various situations, as they are friendly or unfriendly to the health of the human body. The causes of sickness, are marshy situations, exposure to the heat before the constitution is inured to it, or to the various hardships of a military life before new-raised troops are accustomed to them. He points out, in many different parts of this volume, the destruction that ensues from sending new soldiers to Jamaica, and encamping them in unhealthy situations. The 5000 conquerors of St. Lucia, were soon, within one year, swept away; and from the expedition to St. Juan, nothing returned, but the enfeebled shadows of those who went in high health and good spirits. Fatigue, irregularity, and excess, in short, every thing that weakens the body, gives a force and a pernicious efficacy to the marshy effluvia. Our author next explains the precautions to be taken in sending troops to the West Indies, and the proper stations for encampment. It appears, from a subsequent part of the work, that, at three miles from the marshes, the effluvia are harmless; how much nearer they may be approached with safety, we know not. It is evident, however, on the whole, from indisputable facts, that troops may be preserved in as good health in Jamaica as in England; and sailors cruising in these seas, are often more healthy than in the English channel: but, for this purpose, it is necessary, that some negroes be attached to each ship, for the purpose of procuring water; since the employment of watering is highly dangerous. A body of negroes are recommended also as an appendage to every regiment, for the severer and more dangerous duty, since the Africans are less affected by the heat of the climate, and scarcely at all subject to the remittent fevers. The whole of our author's directions we would strenuously recommend as highly useful and salutary; we hope they will not be published without notice, or sink into oblivion without the attention they deserve.

The returns of sick in different regiments, and in different situations,

situations, are stated at length; but these detached facts we cannot abridge. From one-third to one-eighth of the army, at different times were sick. The average of deaths is one-fourth; of discharges one-eighth; in the whole, the loss amounts to three-eighths. In less than four years, 5250 men, from both causes, were lost to the army, though not a single man died in action, or its consequences. These facts are of great importance: it would be an insult to expatiate on them; and, at this enlightened period, to suppose that they will not be attended to in the land, as they have been in the sea service: *then* Philosophy will not have laboured in vain.

The peculiar diseases of Jamaica are fevers and dysenteries. The remittent fever is one of the most dangerous and fatal maladies: our author describes it with great exactness and at a considerable length. In mentioning the tetanus, that occasionally occurs in it, he remarks, that the contractions, though at all times considerable, are not always equal and uniform: he thinks, and we believe with the strictest justice, that remittent fevers are not infectious. The baleful cause exists in the air alone; and the noxious effects arise from heat, moisture, the putrefaction of vegetable and animal matters. The latter cannot take place without the two former, and the former are not productive of remittent fevers without the latter.

The cure of remittents, as explained in this volume, is very simple. Emetics, Dr. Hunter objects to, as they may often produce constant urgings, and so great irritability of the stomach, that the bark cannot afterwards be retained. He gives the Glauber's salt to procure stools, and afterwards, on the first remission, the bark. In the fit, he directs about five or six grains of James's powder, which often proves diaphoretic, or slightly laxative. The bark is the great assistant, and Dr. Hunter sometimes gives two ounces during the remission. When it purges, a little tinctura thebaica is added; when the stomach will not bear the bark in substance, the infusion is given: when there is no time to wait for the operation of salts, rhubarb is joined with the bark. Our author thinks the kind of purgative of no great importance; and he could not imitate the effects of James's powder by any management of emetic tartar. He accounts for this peculiarity, from its being a calx of antimony, and not a saline preparation. If violent vomitings occur, they are mitigated by tinctura thebaica in an effervescent draught or in Bristol water. Our author's observations on the use of wine, we shall transcribe, without alteration.

‘ It may be asked, in what quantity should wine be given? It is difficult to give a precise answer to this; the quantity must bear

bear a proportion to its effects, and I have generally been guided by the following circumstances. If it be not grateful to the sick, but on the contrary disagreeable, it will seldom do good; nor is it attended with better effects, if it increase the heat, restlessness, or delirium. When it agreed well with the sick, I have in general found the quantity that had the best effects, much less than what is often recommended. I have rarely given above a pint in the twenty-four hours, and from watching its effects, was well assured, that going beyond that quantity would have done no good, but, on the contrary, harm. I do not speak of the jail fever, in which wine has been recommended, and given in very large quantities; although my experience even in that disease, has not furnished me with cases, where the quantity could be made with safety, much to exceed that mentioned above. It happens most unfortunately in physic, that we can hardly correct one error without rushing into another; not content with substituting wine and cordials in the room of evacuations, we must produce intoxication, without considering that in all cases, where the human body is greatly reduced or exhausted, the strength and quantity even of cordials must bear a direct proportion to the remaining strength of the sick.

If the thirst be great, small diluting liquors are only given. Dr. Hunter neither found in his patients a craving for acids and acescents, or drinks of those kinds peculiarly useful. Bristol water often staid on the stomach when every thing else was rejected. The stupor was relieved by James's powder, and blisters did not seem of great use, except in fixed pains of the head, which they always relieved.

The convalescents were often relieved by a cruise, if they could, on board, procure proper conveniencies; and this circumstance leads our author to enquire into the cause of the unhealthiness of seamen. Part of this subject we have anticipated; but we must extract the observations on the diseases of sailors sent to new ships, because they differ from those of Dr. Blane.

‘ Again, the men of war supplying the deficiency of their complement by pressing the sailors from the merchant ships; to avoid which, many of the men leave their ships as soon as they make the land, and lurk into the country or towns, till an opportunity offer of getting aboard a trading ship, or till they fall into the hands of a press-gang. Those men, as well as the sailors employed in the pressing duty, are all exposed to the usual causes of sickness, and after going on board the king's ships, many of them are seized with fevers. This has been particularly remarked in those ships that have been manned entirely in Jamaica; which happened, when ships taken from the enemy were brought into the service of government; and upon some occasions of this kind, the mortality has not been less among the officers

officers than the men, owing, apparently, to the former having taken an active part in the pressing service. I am not ignorant that it has been supposed, that the foul state of the ships taken from the enemy, has produced contagious fevers, to which the mortality alluded to has been imputed. But it is worthy of remark, that there was no contagious fever among the enemies' men, while on board the same ships; and that though they were dirty, there was no confined air, and it is the latter only that is known to produce contagious fevers. But what appears to be of more force than either of those arguments is, that many of those who died had the yellow fever, which is sufficiently characteristic of the distemper of the country, and is an appearance rarely to be met with in contagious fevers.'

Of the symptoms mentioned, the tetanus was often troublesome. A medicine that answered well in one case, we shall mention, because, though a solitary instance, it supports, we think, Dr. Rush's system. It was an electary made of flour of mustard with common syrup; a tea-spoonful was given every hour, if the stomach and throat would bear it otherwise, every two hours. The red bark did not seem peculiarly useful. We suspect, from Dr. Hunter's mentioning its effect in the stomach and bowels, that the Caribbæan bark was substituted for it. The effects of particular remedies are examined; but as we have explained those which were found to be useful, we shall make no remarks on the rest.

Our author next examines into the nature and the causes of a remittent fever. The bile, he thinks, is not a cause either from an increased quantity, or by any preternatural qualities. Putrefaction is equally blameless. Dr. Hunter thinks that there is no affection of the brain and nervous system; but for this opinion, his reasons do not appear to be well founded, except he means that an affection of this kind is not a cause of the other symptoms: it is probably an effect of the remote cause, though it is the first effect, and in some degree influences the subsequent train of symptoms. This remote cause is the exhalation from marshy grounds; and, in Dr. Hunter's opinion, it gains admission either from the lungs in respiration, by means of the absorbents of the skin, or adheres to the fauces, and is swallowed with the food. The second means is, we think, improbable; and the last is supported by the best arguments. The jaundice, or rather the yellow colour of the skin, may arise from the increased secretion of bile, though it is more probably, in our author's opinion, owing to a spasmodic affection of the ductus communis. He shews, either from a spasm of this kind, or from viscidities, that there is often a considerable resistance to the passage of the bile from the gall-bladder. In dissections, the bile is found to be

be very viscid and black, though not in large quantity: its visciduity seems to have arisen from a copious absorption. There is some redness in the stomach and duodenum, with much black matter, which seems chiefly to accompany an affection of the villous coat. It is probably blood; though sometimes bile, and occasionally, we suspect, a depraved mucus. There are, in some instances, livid spots on the lungs; but, in general, there are no particular marks of putrefaction.

The next subject of Dr. Hunter's attention is the intermittent fever, which is common in the healthy season, and its symptoms or cure afford nothing very remarkable. In England our author has found small doses of calomel, particularly, with purgatives, assist the bark in the cure of intermittents. Mercury was given also, with dried squills, for the dropsy that often follows the remittents.

Dysentery is next described, shortly, as it differs so little from the dysentery of this climate. Its connection with the remittent fever is very considerable. Its cure, in the acute state, is a saline laxative with an opiate: afterwards equal parts of a decoction of bark, and an infusion of camomile flowers, with as much rhubarb as would give two or three motions a day, seemed of great service. In the chronic stage, Dr. Hunter trusted to opium and laxatives alternately. Of the appearances on dissection our author gives the best and most connected description that we have seen. We shall transcribe it.

‘ Upon a first view the bowels, particularly the colon, appear irregularly contracted, and redder than natural at the contracted parts. Upon a nearer inspection, by cutting out portions of the gut and examining the internal coats, the appearances of disease become more evident. There are to be seen small tubercles, like pustules, sometimes in a smaller, sometimes in a greater number: and they are to be found in different stages, so that their progress can only be collected from several observations combined. The same subject will frequently furnish, in different portions of the gut, examples of the several stages. Their progress appears to be nearly as follows; there is first a small round tubercle of a reddish colour, and not more than one tenth of an inch in diameter; it increases gradually till it be near a quarter of an inch in diameter, and becomes paler as it grows larger. In this stage there appears a small crack on the top with a slight depression, which gradually increase; and on examining the contents of the little tumour, I have generally found them to be a cheese-like substance. The pustule, for though it contain no pus, I do not know any name more expressive of its appearance, is seated under the villous coat between that and the muscular coat. As the opening enlarges, the edges become prominent, and the base grows rough and scabrous, from which matter oozes out, that is sometimes tinged with

with blood. Such is the progress of one, but they are often in clusters, and become confluent, so as to form a rough unequal ulcerated surface, with an hard and thickened base. Sometimes they appear like a small eating ulcer in the gut, in which the prominence of the edges give an appearance of a loss of substance, or as if the villous coat were intirely removed.'

When the stools are copious and frequent, without pain or griping, Dr. Hunter recommends astringents, as the *lignum Campech.* *cortex Granati*, *terra Japonica*, &c.

The next subject is the dry belly-ach. It undoubtedly proceeds from lead; and Dr. Hunter has already given his opinion on this point: we have recorded it in our LXth volume, p. 432. The disease is exactly the same with the colic of Poitou, and the cure is not very different. Dr. Hunter objects to emetics, for the reason which induced him to forbid them in remittents. He trusts to a blister, and particularly to opium and laxatives. He thinks a stool should be procured, before the opiate is given; but this is not very consistent with his opinion, (p. 252.) that, 'soon after the pain became easier, free evacuations followed.' We have adopted the other practice with much success. Stools have not come on so soon; but we have learned, that if the patient is easy, no bad consequences have resulted from their delay, and it has been protracted from forty-eight to sixty hours. Our author has given the most efficacious remedy, the extract. catharticum, with calomel. He apologizes for the small dose of the mercurials, as they run very soon to the mouth, in hot climates: in England, two grains may be given every hour, for a purgative, till it operates, especially if joined with the extract. There is an excellent letter from Dr. Franklin subjoined, which shews, that lead was known to be the cause of the dry belly-ach, attended with palsy, more than sixty years since. Dr. Hunter mentions also an uncommon fact, we believe a singular one, that the pain alternated from the bowels to the head.

Ulcers are very troublesome and obstinate. They were nearly incurable in the West Indies; but soon healed on the patients return to England, unless the bones were carious. They sometimes arose from the chiger, an insect that forms itself the nidus for its young. The effects produced by the bite of other insects are mentioned, particularly of that which produces the itch. Dr. Hunter tells us, that he has extracted, and examined it by a microscope: Bonomo's figure, he says, conveys a tolerable idea of the insect. In the West Indies, the itch is not confined to the duplicatures of the skin: It is often a general and a ragged sore, and shows its nature only by infection, and by yielding to the topical application of sulphur. On the
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other disorders of the West Indies, syphilis, inflammatory affections, measles, consumptions, mania, and the rash styled the prickly heat, there is little to remark, except what arises from the general nature of complaints in hot climates. The remarks on the diseases of negroes are short, but curious. Except the cacabay, not unlike the fivvens of the North, and the dirt-eating, which results from a depraved appetite, there is nothing particularly interesting.

The volume concludes with some observations on the best manner of taking care of the sick in Jamaica, and the other West India islands. Dr. Hunter very properly urges the necessity of hospitals to every regiment, and every detachment; of attention in the regimental surgeons, or rather of placing the surgeons on the staff, that the requisite number may be sent on any emergency. The attention of the surgeon was found, on one comparative experiment, to diminish the number of patients very considerably. Eight companies of the same regiment, in the same situation and the same duty, filled no more room in the hospital than four companies under a different direction.

After what we have already observed of this volume, to repeat our commendations would be superfluous; yet to leave Dr. Hunter abruptly would be improper. Let us leave him then in possession of his well-earned fame, and that best of mental consolation under fatigue, the consciousness of having done our duty.

Lectures on History, and General Policy; to which is prefixed, An Essay on a Course of liberal Education for Civil and Active Life. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Johnson.

WHEN Dr. Priestley was tutor at the Warrington academy, he gave a Course of Lectures on History and General Policy, which he now offers to the public. We have little doubt but that they will esteem it an acceptable present. It is the outline, perhaps with more propriety the principles, of history; and they teach the pupil not only various important occurrences, but give a force to the mind, and a strength to the judgment, which enable him, in the future progress of his studies, to determine for himself, with more propriety than he could otherwise have done. The Lectures are also well adapted to afford comprehensive views to those who, engaged in active life, cannot well pursue particular details. As this volume is, with respect to its facts, chiefly a collection, we shall enlarge principally on its general plan.

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The Lectures are sixty-eight in number : the three first are employed in pointing out the general use of history. The nine lectures which immediately follow, relate to its sources, as oral tradition, historical poems, medals, written history, &c. with some account of their respective importance. Of the more indirect methods of collecting the knowledge of past events, which are either old laws, the periods of human life, or celestial appearances, Dr. Priestley gives a very clear and proper account.

The third part contains four Lectures on the studies preparatory to history, as chronology, geography, astronomical periods, the methods of estimating the riches, and power of ancient and remote nations, with the value of the different coins. The account of the English and French coins is particularly curious and useful ; but it is chiefly collected from other authors.

The sixteen Lectures, which comprise the fourth part, contain directions for facilitating the study of history. The principal assistants are chronological tables, charts of history and biography, with the different terms of fortifications. Dr. Priestley then gives a short character of the various historians, and the order in which their different histories may be read most advantageously. The methods of studying English history are very proper ones, and the different facts are extracted from Nicholson's Historical Library. The historians of other nations are comprised in a single Lecture.

The last part contains thirty-six Lectures, and includes an account of the most important objects of attention to a reader of history. This part is extremely miscellaneous, and comprises not only the objects which deserve the student's attention in history, but many collateral circumstances more remotely connected with history, and which may be arranged under the head of civil policy. From this part we shall make a few extracts, because the substance is more particularly our author's own. The good sense, and just reflections, in the following passage, will be a sufficient apology for selecting it.

* Passing by ecclesiastical history, unless where it is particularly connected with civil, the next period worthy of our notice is that which contains the history of the Grecian commonwealths ; every stage of which we have so fine an opportunity of tracing in the admirable Grecian historians, who adorned that period ; by means of which the history of so inconsiderable a people, with respect to numbers, and extent of territory, has attracted the attention of all civilized nations and ages, and will be the subject of discourse and of writing to the end of the world, or so long as a taste for knowledge, and a spirit of liberty and

magnanimity, shall subsist. Here we have an opportunity of observing, with the greatest clearness, and with every variety of circumstance, all the advantages and disadvantages of a popular government, both in their struggles for common liberty with a foreign power, and in their contests for superiority among themselves.

'This period is the more worthy of our notice on account of the great resemblance it bears, though in miniature, to the present state of Europe. The power both of the Grecian and European states was greatly increased in consequence of mutual emulation, and domestic wars; but whereas theirs were so obstinate as greatly to weaken one another, and give a foreign power an opportunity to crush them all; Europe has hitherto only been exercised to the use of arms, and the power of the whole has been increased by the wars which the several states of it have maintained with one another. The wars between the Athenians and Lacedemonians, particularly the great Peloponnesian war, which is the subject of Thucydides's history, afford an excellent lesson to the English in their wars with the French, exhibiting in the clearest light all the advantages of a maritime force, and the risk that is run by a popular government (or a government inclining to that form) from aiming at extensive conquests.'

Another passage on the influence of the government on manners, is exceedingly ingenious.

'According to Montesquieu, the power and happiness of monarchical states is in a great measure independent both of public spirit, and of a principle of virtue. Nay, the very vices of the members of them (at least those things which would be vices in a republic) are, he says, subservient to their welfare. In a monarchy there is, at least, less to be apprehended from luxury and the chief promoter of it, a free intercourse between the two sexes. The Suions, a German nation, Tacitus says, honoured riches, and lived under the government of one person. It is curious to see, in Dio Cassius, with what art Augustus evaded the request of the senators to stop the progress of luxury, which was become necessary at Rome, when a monarchy. In a republic candidates for offices look downward and study the useful arts; but in a monarchy they look upwards, and study to make themselves agreeable. Though, therefore, strong sense may succeed best in republics, refinement of taste may be expected in greater perfection in monarchies.

'Besides, where there is a free intercourse between the sexes, the mutual desire of pleasing produces a continual change of fashions, and manners, very consistent with monarchy, but incompatible with despotism. Moreover, whereas, in a monarchy, but incompatible with despotism. Moreover, whereas, in a monarchy, women are the promoters of luxury; in despotic governments they are merely the objects of it. Were women

men to behave with that freedom and spirit of intrigue in Asia, that they are remarkable for in Europe, and particularly in France, the government would soon be obliged to take notice of it. Republics also are obliged to put great restraints upon the incontinence of women, in order to secure public virtue, which is so essential to them; whereas, in monarchies, though those vices have the same ill consequences in private families, the mischiefs they produce are less extensive.

The rise, progress, and fall, of the feudal system, is given with great clearness and accuracy, so far as the detail was the object of the author. We have seen no account where so much is said in so few sentences, so well expressed. If we are ever led to differ from Dr. Priestley in this account, it is only in some minute particulars, which are not of importance. The observations on laws, on their progress, their tendency, and effects, are also very just. The advantages of arts, sciences, and commerce, with their respective progress and decline, are very well detailed.

We have, in this part, noticed a few of those objects which seemed to deserve particular attention; and that we have not examined this work with more minuteness, depends on what we have already said, and what our author has himself observed. To the proficient, it is a work of amusement rather than of novelty. Let not this, however, disgust the reader, who may affect learning, or aim at the credit of being well informed. He must be extensively learned, who will not find something new in this work; and he must be very intelligent, to whose stock something may not be added from it. We have met with many observations, which had not occurred to us before; and, if we have not been anxious to point them out, it was rather from apprehension that they might not have appeared new to our readers, than from any disrespect to Dr. Priestley. Those who look not for novelty, will find the subjects of these Lectures explained with great ingenuity, and admirable perspicuity. They will find what they have known before, improved by advantageous lights, and adorned by the dress in which it is presented.

An Essay on the Impolicy of the African Slave Trade, in two Parts.
By the rev. T. Clarkson, M. A. 8vo. 2s. Phillips.

AFTER showing the inhumanity of the slave trade, Mr. Clarkson displays its impolicy: he has been assiduous in collecting information, and has arranged it with propriety, and enforced it with judgment. The facts are, it seems, well authenticated; but they are so very strong, and differ in so many instances, from what has been understood to be the truth, that we shall not give any opinion on the subject. It is, however,

incumbent on those who have opposed the patrons of the abolition of the slave trade, to contradict many of these facts, on foundations, if such exist, equally firm.

This Essay is divided into two parts; the first treats of the advantages which result to the nation from the trade; and in the second, the author examines the fatal consequences which it has been supposed would result from its abolition. Previous to the examination of the advantages, Mr. Clarkson shows, that Africa is rich in various woods, in mahogany, cotton, drugs, tobacco, rice, and indigo; that these commodities would furnish an advantageous trade, on the footing of mutual confidence, if the slave trade were abolished; and, in the course of his enquiry, points out that the importation of these commodities would be productive of great national advantages, as the distance and the risk are less, since they are chiefly imported at present from countries not our own. It remains, however, to be enquired, whether they are imported from countries where the balance of trade is in our favour, since we risk the loss of a valuable commerce, if it be not pretty nearly on the footing of an equivalent. A large balance in the disfavour of any country, would soon open its eyes to the ruin of a losing trade.

To individuals, our author asserts that the slave trade is very disadvantageous. On the whole, it is a lottery where there are many blanks and few prizes, in times of peace: but to continue the metaphor, in times of war the prizes are very large, but less numerous; yet if the fortunes acquired be compared to the losses, the only way of ascertaining national gains, the trade may be styled injurious. This is not likely to happen with the other commodities of Africa; but it is still necessary to prove, that both trades are incompatible. The next object is to show that the slave trade is the grave rather than the nursery of our seamen: the list of cruelties we object to, for the reasons already given, yet we ought to add our author's reasons why the law does not avenge the enormous offences committed against its injunctions.

‘ These objects are generally without friends and money, without which the injured will seek for justice but in vain; and because the peculiarity of their situation is an impediment to their endeavours for redress.

‘ But to be more particular.—Where are these unfortunate people to appeal?

‘ In the West-Indies, you will say, where they first land. But here one of the magistrates is perhaps the person to whom the vessel is consigned, and will not interfere. By another, when applied to, they are termed deserters, and unworthy either of credit or relief.

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‘ But let us follow them home to their destined port. How are they to obtain redress, or to whom also are they to make their application here ?

‘ You will say, “ to a gentleman of the law.” But this gentleman of the law has many slave merchants for his clients, and refuses to be employed.

‘ Let them apply then to another. But this other refuses them from a different consideration. He reasons thus: “ it will perhaps, be a long while, on account of the forms of law, before the decision can be made. The witnesses must be forth-coming at an appointed time. But who are they ? People, whose dependence is upon the sea ; who look up to it for their support ; who will not be a month on shore before their wages will be gone, and before they must get employment again. If they get into employ they cannot appear ; if they stay, who is to support them ?”

From the returns of all the ships employed from Liverpool, in 1787, one-fifth of the seamen died : on the average of the whole trade, one in four and a half. In the year 1786, 1125 seamen died on this trade. Those discharged and deserted in Africa and the West Indies exceed the deaths : and less than half the number of the latter are hired in the West Indies to bring the vessels home. Consequently more than one half of those who have been discharged, and who have deserted, are lost, they die of their wounds, or become vagabonds and are starved. If Guinea seamen of former voyages are hired to supply the place of deserters, they often return blind, emaciated, and diseased. Fifteen, therefore, in every vessel, or 1950 of the whole number, are annually lost to the naval strength of Great Britain from this trade. Men of war, or ships sent to Africa on the wood trade, experience very little mortality in comparison of the slave ships ; and if the whole trade of Great Britain be considered collectively, the average loss is little in comparison. It appears from a sufficiently correct comparative account, at least from an account which we cannot impeach, that the slave trade destroys more than twice as many in one year, than all the other trades, if the losses are added together.

Independent of the supply of our own colonies, the slaves sold to the French and Spanish colonies are supposed to supply us with dollars. We state the following objection to this supposition in our author’s own words. We suspect there is a little contradiction in it.

‘ But the evil does not stop here. The French, from a variety of causes have been able to undersell us in this produce at the different markets of Europe. This has given birth to an additional fleet of ships employed in the exporting of it to other

countries. Now, if we consider that French ships carry nearly double the number of seamen which ours of the same burthen do, we shall find that we are enabling our reputed enemies, by this branch of the trade, to dispute with us the sovereignty of the seas.

It is well known, that both the Spaniards and the French depend solely upon their American possessions for the recruit of their marine. It is as much an established maxim among them, as that the fisheries, if properly encouraged, will be the compleatest nursery for our own. For this purpose, the former have opened their ports duty free for the reception of slaves for ten years. For this purpose the latter not only offer a bounty by the ton to the proprietors of such vessels as import them into the uncultivated parts of St. Domingo, but even afterwards a bounty by the head on every imported slave. To this politic conduct in our enemies, and to this impolitic conduct in us, who have suffered our own subjects to supply them at so public a disadvantage to ourselves, is to be attributed one of the causes that rendered them so formidable at sea during the late war; for the reader must be informed, that since the year 1760, we have been assisting them with an unaccountable insanity to add to the strength of their marine.

They are able to undersell us at present is allowed: but it is by means of the bounties employed. Should we therefore abolish the trade to enable them to supply us without the expence of bounties? Again, the slave trade is the grave of seamen, or it is not; if it is, the double crews must exhaust their navy in a greater proportion than ours: if not, one great argument against our abolishing it, is taken away. If Mr. Clarkson suffers his zeal to run away with him so inconsiderately, his work will not greatly assist the cause he is endeavouring to support; and mischief enough has been done to it by former hasty and injudicious publications.

Mr. Clarkson next examines the fatal consequences which have been predicted to arise from the abolition: he produces several facts to show, that the stock of negroes in Jamaica will support itself; but we already perceive a fallacy in his instances. Where the stock has continued unimpaired, or the negroes have increased, the proprietors have had an additional proportion of females; but we are not told, whether there are females sufficient to allow of this additional number to all the estates. If the abolition take place, we allow (and an excellent consequence will, we doubt not, arise even from the present exertions, if no farther effect follow) that it will secure the negro better treatment. If it were to take place also, great expences would be immediately saved: more work would be done by Creoles, and in a better manner.

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The loss to the revenue would arise by a loss of duty on the exports to, and the imports from Africa. The duty on the exports, when the several drawbacks are allowed, is inconsiderable: the imports of Africa are either in the wood vessels, or the consequences of the voyage of the slave ships to the West Indies. The first would remain, and the second, in our author's opinion, not be felt; as there would be a continual succession of Creoles, the work would be done better, and any accidental diminution might be more than compensated by introducing the plough and other machines of husbandry. After some time, the number of negroes would increase; the planter at a less expence, to supply his stock, would clear more land; and more than 1,150,000 acres remain uncleared. But in this there is another fallacy: is there no loss than so great a number of women, and in the deficiency of their labour during repeated pregnancies and lyings-in?

The real exportation of British goods to Africa, is not above 500,000 pounds worth annually; but even this would be preserved at a less expence than in the slave trade. Relating to the expences we shall select one curious fact.

'It is astonishing what an effect the heat and stench, arising from the slaves confined between the decks, have upon the timbers of the vessels. This effect is so great, that a slave vessel is considered at Liverpool as lasting only half the time of another.'

It has been said too, that the trade of many towns would receive a considerable shock from the abolition. Manchester and Birmingham have joined in the efforts to abolish this trade, and the opulence of Liverpool depends much more on their free admission of strangers, the West Indian and American trades, than on the 'commerce of the human species.' During the war, the trade was nearly annihilated; but our author contends, that there was no want of labour at Manchester, no deficiency in the import of sugar: but these arguments are exceedingly fallacious; and it was injudicious to add them. In France, we find by our author, that the abolition of the slave trade is also kept in view; but if it be not, we consign over to the French only a commerce, which will destroy their seamen. In this respect, he reasons very justly.

We cannot dismiss Mr. Clarkson's work, without thanking him for much valuable information. If he had not aimed at too much, he would have done more; but he has, at least, shown much benevolence and great industry. He has elucidated many parts of this odious commerce, which, with all its faults, must, we fear, be retained. We hope, however, that it will be greatly amended.

An Examination of the Third and Fourth Definitions of the First Book of Sir Isaac Newton's Principia, and of the Three Axioms or Laws of Motion. By Robert Young. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

An Essay on the Powers and Mechanism of Nature. By Robert Young. 8vo. 7s. in Boards. Johnson.

IF it was formerly difficult to explain the beginning of motion, it is at present a problem no less intricate; and if it were not for the compendious answer of the unlettered citizen to the philosopher, we might almost deny its existence. Mr. Young thinks that he perceives considerable difficulties in the definitions which are the objects of his first pamphlet, and is induced to question the existence of the *vis insita*, as a quality of matter. His reasoning on this subject is purely metaphysical, and he defends the necessity of this reasoning with great propriety. The first step of the human mind, or that which ought to be the first step, is the observation of what really happens; the next is a comparison of these facts, their analogies, and their differences, to determine a principle yet more general. It is our reasoning about this general principle, which is necessarily metaphysical, that forms the third step. To illustrate this subject: we see bodies in motion impinging on each other, communicating their motion either in part, or entirely, when they proceed with diminished velocity, or stop. These facts we examine and compare, so as to procure general propositions, when we establish that motion exists, that it may be communicated; and perhaps that it is an accidental quality, not inherent in the bodies themselves, but derived either from moving bodies, or an intelligent principle which directs it, for some wise purpose. We have chosen this illustration because it assists us in the examination of the subject. Sir Isaac Newton, who had compared facts and abstracted them, so as to form mathematical theorems, for our author is strictly correct in saying, that mathematical is abstract reasoning; Sir Isaac, we say, in this career, looked forward to a general abstract principle. He saw, that if motion was given in a strait line, the power of gravity would bend the body from that line, and make it revolve in a given curve, according to the distance or power of gravity, arising from the attracting force of the centre. To explain this kind of motion, it was impossible that the body should, from any activity of its own, deviate from the line determined by the rectilineal impulse and the centripetal force conjointly. He therefore assumed the principle of the *vis insita*; and if that was given from the known power of gravity on the surface, he showed that the same power would bend the motion
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of a projected planet into an elliptic curve. It was a kind of activity to continue motion, and it was a degree of inertness to continue that motion only as originally directed. This compound, this seemingly contradictory quality, he called by a term of the same kind, *vis inertiae*. Indeed, if motion is something absolute, it must be expended before its power can cease: but from hypothesis there is no resistance, the only power of destroying motion; it must therefore be continued—But let us attend to our author.

He first, in his pamphlet, protests against a definition, which is in reality a proposition. Our author is not, however, correct in his objection. Newton defines what he means by the term, and it is strictly a definition. Whether the definition is just is not to be proved; it is a fact of every day's experience. The greater the velocity with which any body is projected, the longer it is before the power of gravity and the resistance of the air affects it. If, therefore, the velocity be greater and the resistance less, the motion will be continued proportionally longer.

The great difficulty which our author feels, seems to arise from the endeavour to persevere in the state 'of rest.' Endeavour undoubtedly implies activity; but change the proposition to resistance, and the difficulty is at an end. The other part of the difficulty is of Mr. Young's own making; that this endeavour is by means of their innate force: in reality their resistance is owing to the want of force, and their passiveness when impelled with an insufficient power. This power, considered as active, is the foundation, we think, of our author's mistake (we mean not that his view of the question is entirely erroneous). If we understand rightly, though called a power, it really means, when the resistance once is overcome, an acquiescence; and the only thing which we would contend for is, not that this resistance is imaginary, but that it is the joint result of friction and gravity: whatever it be, the term is only objectionable.

In our author's objection to the fourth definition, he seems to us to mistake Newton. Motion in a right line is styled a state; and though the body momentarily changes its place, it does not change its state, for that is by hypothesis the uniform motion. Newton clearly implies, that motion is not continued by the impressed force, but by the inhering power; and this is undoubtedly erroneous, if the *vis insita* be the result of the causes which we have mentioned; and that we think so is pretty evident from our contending, that the continuance of motion is owing to the first cause not being expended by resistance. In this case too, the facts and the

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conclusions are the same: the difference is about words. Our author's objection to the third law of motion has much force: we can conceive little of reaction but as resistance, and reaction in an inert body in any other view, implies a contradiction. Indeed, in the objections to the laws of motion, it is the principle of inactivity, at which the arguments are chiefly directed; and the author attempts to show, that on Newton's hypothesis, the beginning, the communication, or the continuance of motion, are not explained. From all his arguments, he therefore concludes, that these principles are not true; and that even if they were demonstrated, they would be insufficient. He has undoubtedly proved, that they require emendation; but if we assume the facts alone, in other language, they are clearly as we have shown, sufficient. The whole subject of motion is involved in many intricacies as a metaphysical one; and the communication of motion is so difficult a subject, that some of the wisest and most religious philosophers, have resolved it into a continual agency of the deity, cutting the knot which they were unable to untye. The very existence of motion may be combated by the metaphysician on apparently good grounds; for if space is infinite, it can have no parts, there can be no place from which a body can move into any other. But this view, though sanctioned by a great name, may be considered as the reveries of the philosopher; and we shall continue to move in our little circle, without being able to explain the nature of motion, or how a body can communicate a quality which it possesses by the transitory influence of an impulse.

Mr. Young, as appears from his Essay, does not purpose to destroy, but to confirm the Newtonian system, by expunging the most infirm, and the most insecure parts. What in the former Essay, he attempted to destroy, he has now endeavoured to supply. The examination of the third and fourth definition has been published some time, though, from unavoidable circumstances, we were unable to notice it; and our author gave it to the public, that, unaccompanied with a new system, it might have its own effects, without being assisted or retarded by the excellence or faults of the subsequent scheme. Though we treat of them in the same article, yet, in conformity with his design, we examined them separately and at our leisure.

In the Essay, Mr. Young begins with explaining that the origin of all our knowledge is from our sensations; and assigns to the philosopher and the metaphysician their different duties. He next proceeds to the analysis of matter, and to describe its various primary and secondary qualities. Extension and its
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concomitant solidity are the objects of the philosopher's attention in this enquiry. Yet solidity, as implying resistance, implies, in his opinion, power, and the essence of body is of course power. This first step should be carefully examined, and the enquiry whether resistance implies activity, might be a very extensive one. If we, for a moment, suppose a plenum to exist, it will be obvious that, in this case, there can be no action implied in resistance; if we suppose an elastic fluid to pervade every body, we assume a plenum so far as resistance is concerned, and we transfer, with our author, the activity of matter to the activity of this elastic fluid. This is the system we must at last arrive at; and we shall then, perhaps, find that resistance is in consequence of the structure, the constitution, the organization of this fluid, if we may be allowed the expression, rather than of any inherent activity. We shall select a short specimen of our author's reasoning on this subject: so far as it reaches, it is very correct.

‘ Our own being furnishes us with the original idea of power. We are capable of acting and producing changes in appearances, and this faculty, which we experience to exist, we call power. We do not indeed know what is the essence or origin of the power, nor how it effects the change; our idea of it is therefore imperfect; it is that which can produce a change or can act. This is its characteristic, by which it is distinguished from all other existences which are incapable to act, or produce change.

‘ We are conscious of the exertion of our own power; when, therefore, we see action or change happen without any exertion of power on our part, we refer this to other powers, without us, and necessarily conclude the power to exist where the change begins, or the action is exerted.

‘ This power, then, referred to bodies, must exist in them, or it can exist no where. It does not exist in our minds; in our minds it is only an idea of a resemblance to the power we are conscious of in ourselves, associated with those external appearances where we experience changes and actions. The idea in our minds is, therefore, a fallacy if the thing does not exist without the mind. From hence we conclude that power truly exists in bodies.’

Cohesion is considered also as activity, whether it be employed in the coalition of atoms into body or of particles into atoms: body is in every instance held together by power, that is by activity; and the impenetrability of matter is, in Mr. Young's opinion, an error. In many of these subjects Mr. Young is more correct than may be supposed from his own arguments. Every view of matter, as an inactive substance, is taken from the brute matter before our eyes: when we proceed to decompose it into smaller masses, it seems to gain an

an activity in proportion to the diminution of its cohesion. We cannot see the attractive and repulsive power of bodies divided by solution, or still farther, by being forced to assume an aerial form, without allowing an active principle in matter. We guard our expressions by calling it a principle *in* matter, rather than attributing activity to the atoms, because we suppose it to depend on a surrounding, probably a pervading fluid; and if this fluid be for a moment supposed material, the penetrability of of matter must be allowed.

In the analysis of motion, our author perceives activity, and of course, the presence of an active substance; this active substance is necessarily, therefore, present in every part of space where there is body, independent of our perceiving it. He goes on to enquire what this agent is, and reviews the doctrines of Locke, Berkley, and Boscovich on the subject, particularly that of Berkley. We cannot enter very extensively into these controversies, and we have had formerly an opportunity of pointing out the source of Berkley's errors, which may be derived from Locke. We are fully of opinion, that Locke saw the consequences which Berkley drew from his doctrine of ideas, and shrunk from the examination. Our author, however, at last, concludes that this active substance is immaterial and intermediate between body and mind: this is not a new opinion, but we own that it is an unintelligible one. We may refine matter as far as we please, but it is still matter; and while we own the influence of an all-pervading fluid, we must, for various reasons, which we cannot now enumerate, think it a material one.

Mr. Young, in the next part, goes on to consider action, and the manner in which the active power produces matter and motion. Its activity we have observed, is evinced by motion, and it acts by its union with body. Mr. Young seems to suspect, that a rational tendency is to be inferred from experiment in the cause of motion; but as he is not explicit on this subject, we employ his own words.

‘In no example of activity in matter is the rational cause manifest. Among those activities where we can see an experimental cause, such as volition, impulse, fire, electricity, we do not perceive the necessary connection between cause and effect; we do not understand the facts. In the other motions, we see, as was said, no cause at all; the rational cause of all activity in matter remains therefore to be investigated.

‘Whenever a body is subject to a cause of motion, or in circumstances wherein, if left to itself, it would be moved, and is prevented from motion, it nevertheless becomes active in the direction of the cause, and exerts an impulse on whatever impedes its own motion.’

Matter,

Matter, he allows, is, in the gross, inactive, from the equilibrium of its constituent activities, and requires, therefore, accessory activities. These are the various sources of motion perceivable in nature; and the degree of activity is proportional to the power. He next proceeds to the activity of bodies as distinguished into motion, and the two forms of impulse, pressure, 'and percussion.' Impulse depends, he thinks, on the active substance flowing out of the body, and motion depends on the same substance retained within the body it moves. Percussion is a species of impulse, and pressure is its highest state. This part of our author's system is the most important one; but, in reality, we think it adds little to our knowledge; for to explain motion, a moving power must be granted, as well as a communication of that moving power. He not only begs the question, instead of explaining it, but the communication is equally gratuitous. We think it more simple to allow, as we have done in our explanation of Newton, a resistance to matter, and an indifference to changing its state while the influence of the first impelling power is not expended. Let us, for instance, suppose a mass at rest, and impelled by another mass in motion: large masses we know to be impermeable to each other, and it cannot, therefore, remain where it was. If its parts do not yield, it is driven where it was not; and this impulse being given, if we allow of the first hypothesis, which is consistent with observation, it cannot stop, till we find either some resistance at once, or gradually supplied to exhaust the impulse.

Mr. Young goes on to explain the formation of matter, from this active substance; and he thinks, that a material atom may be formed by the rotation about its own axis of a portion of the immaterial active substance. This is an union of Berkley's and Boscovich's systems, or rather a *tertium quid*, formed of both, and unlike either. While we cannot agree in our author's system relating to this fluid, we cannot implicitly subscribe to this composition of it. Mr. Young proceeds to consider his system as extending beyond this visible diurnal sphere, and from the congruity of the appearance of active powers and of motion endeavours to support it. Our limits will not permit us to follow him.

As we have alluded to an ether which we suppose to exist, and to be the active power, we must shortly add our opinion of it. It is elastic, in consequence of its peculiar construction; it possesses powers of attraction and repulsion, according to its different states, resulting necessarily from its union with different bodies; and exerts powers at a greater or less distance from the body, according to its condition, at the same time it is continually

nually circulating through all space, assuming the various changes we have mentioned, only while united to particular bodies. This fluid, though very rare, is still, so far as we can perceive, material.

We have been much pleased with the two works before us. They show an acuteness and penetration which reflects much credit on the author's mind: we have candidly told him where we differ from him, without presuming for a moment in an enquiry so intricate, that the one opinion is right, and the other wrong. We are sorry, that in a miscellaneous work, like ours, we could not pay more attention to our author's system; and we must, for our own sakes, add, that what we have advanced, is not the suggestion of the moment, but matured opinions applied to the various appearances of nature.

The Rural Economy of Yorkshire. By Mr. Marshall. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

SINCE Mr. Marshall purposed to acquire some knowledge of the agricultural practices of different countries, by actual observation, and some continued residence, we were rather surprised to see the *Rural Economy of Yorkshire* follow so closely that of Norfolk. But we find that Yorkshire was, if not his native country, the residence of his early youth, and that his acquaintance with the practitioners of husbandry was extensive. In six months he seemed, therefore, able to perform his task, and these sheets were in a great measure ready, when his former work was sent to the press. But, since that time, the present volumes have been rendered more perfect, by another residence of nine months in Yorkshire, where he acquired much additional information.

‘No country entirely mountainous, nor one which is disturbed by manufacture, can be a fit subject of study for rural knowledge. The western division of the county falls chiefly under one or other of these descriptions. There are, no doubt, lands in West Yorkshire which are highly cultivated; especially about Doncaster, toward Ferrybridge; a passage worth perusing. But if we attend to the eastern division, we shall find collected, within comprehensive limits, almost every description of country which is interesting in rural affairs. A rich, well cultivated plain; a group of almost barren mountains, inviting objects of improvement; a fertile vale, various in soil and cultivation; with a tract of chalky downs, terminating in a rich marshland fenny country; including grass land of every class, and arable land of almost every description. It is the island in miniature.’

We

We have given our author's limitation in his own words: we could not have chosen more expressive ones, while, at the same time, we trace the vestiges of his old peculiarities of diction. The eastern district comprehends Cleveland, the Eastern Morelands, the Wolds, Holderness, and the Vale of Pickering. The last is the central station, and under this head we find a detail of the general practice. Some remarks on the economy of the other districts follow, in the second volume; but we find no distinction, in this work, of narrative and minutes.

The Vale of Pickering is described very particularly: its principal soil, and that of its margins, are distinctly characterized. The Headlands stand on a sandy loam, or an inferior clay: the southern and northern banks on a lime-stone rock. The Vale itself is flat; the rivers run sluggishly through; and perhaps used occasionally to overflow it. Before the sea passed through the Straits of Dover, many of these low grounds, either from the tide, or the resistance which the water gave to the rivers, must have been marshy, and perhaps were extensive lakes. Even now the water passes off with difficulty, and frequently not without assistance. The Vale is supported by agricultural riches, without the aid of manufactures; and the farmers are chiefly freeholders of a competent, but not enormous estate. The tenures usually were what is styled 'at will;' but, from a mutual confidence, no rise was expected for improvements: tenants acted as if the estates were their own, or leased for a long term. Some late, seemingly precipitate advances, have destroyed this confidence, and the expected effects are already evident. The particular regulations, and the different courts which superintend them, are carefully pointed out. The Vale of Pickering is mostly inclosed ground; and our author offers his sentiments on inclosures: we expected to find the general question discussed, but we were soon involved in a very uninteresting and useless discussion, whether cottages had any right to a share of the division, and the different methods employed in allotting to each their different proportions. Yet, Mr. Marshall's remarks may be exceedingly useful, where commons are about to be inclosed.

The principal and peculiar part of the building materials is lime-stone and free-stone: the former generally lies in the upper stratum. At first they meet with a lime-stone sand, which degenerates into a schistus, and then into a solid mass: under this is the free-stone. The cement, some time used, was the common earth, beat up with mortar, without lime; but we strongly suspect, that, in a country of lime-stone sand, some cementing quality must have been found in the earth, especially

especially when fresh dug. The inhabitants depend for its strength on the squaring of the stones; but perhaps their cement has some share: that of Pickering Castle is evidently calcareous; and we think, with our author, that they have been employed in the form of puddle. Mr. Marshall's remarks on the use and properties of different cements are very just; and the method which he recommends for slaking of lime, we know to be advantageous. He does not, indeed, reflect, that the hardness of mortar depends on its crystallization with quartzose sand, and that the lumps in lime often arise from a partial vitrification, in consequence of too great heat. The construction of the convenient farm-house, and all its different parts, are detailed at length.

The drinking pools, which are either stagnant pools, fed, in a clayey ground, from the rain; artificial rills, or field wells, are next described. The remarks on the drinking pools, and the best method of constructing them, are very useful: our author prefers the paved bottoms. The methods of making roads claim also much of Mr. Marshall's attention. He recommends that the roads be not too convex; and that a constant and anxious attention be paid to repairs, particularly to filling the ruts. The observations on fences of different kinds are extremely useful. We shall extract some remarks on this subject, which we think of importance, though the idea does not seem to be so *audacious* as Mr. Marshall represents it.

‘But the *boldest* idea I have met with in hedge-planting is that of *burying the plants!* by covering up their heads, an inch or two deep, with mould: and this, not as an experiment, but in the practice of a common labourer.

‘The method of planting, in this case, is the common one of setting the plants behind the ‘cape-sod,’ or first-turned spit. But instead of leaving the heads two or three inches above ground, the plants are shortened, and the heads placed about an inch below the surface.

‘Observing a work of this kind presently after it was executed, I waited with impatience to see the event. In due season the plants made their appearance; not in a number of irregular spreading shoots, as from an exposed head; but rising as from *seed*, in one, or perhaps two or three, straight upright shoots, of peculiar strength and beauty.

‘They did not, however, rise together; some of them remaining in the ground several weeks after the earliest made their appearance. The covering of the mould, therefore, ought perhaps, to be as fine, and laid on as light as may be, to prevent obstructions to the tender shoots in rising.

‘The advantage of burying quick appears to be the valuable one of giving the young hedge an upright tendency, and thereby

thereby preventing the strength of the roots from being expended on useless side-shoots. Plants thus raised take the growth, and probably the habit of *seedling* plants. The roots, in this case, may be considered as *artificial seeds*, furnished with a peculiar strength of vegetation.

Shores and surface drains, including embankments, afford opportunities for remarking practices peculiar to Yorkshire. The embankments of the earl of Salisbury, and the township of Pickering, appear to be very advantageous.

Of the timber, the oak and ash are the most frequent, and the most flourishing: they seem to be native denizens of the woods, or at least lineally descended from the old forests. The true serviceable oak is the tree which rises in thickets, and 'neglected roughets,' unwounded and unimpaired by the browsing of cattle. In 1787, the spirit of ship-building in the ports of Yorkshire was at a low ebb, while in the Thames it flourished considerably. Small as the supply of ship-timber was, the market seemed to be overstocked. A drained moor has been lately planted in Yorkshire; and, in our author's opinion, it is the driest of soils, repelling the water till it is wetted, and then retaining it obstinately. The ozier, the ash, and the birch seem, from this trial, to be best adapted to this soil; the ozier occupying the lowest and the dampest space.

The farms, we have said, are small; and their produce chiefly grass: the farmers, as may be expected, not very enterprising: the servants are generally abstemious and healthy: the beasts of burthen are, now, horses. Mr. Marshall thinks, that oxen have been undeservedly neglected. Of the implements, the winnowing machine appears to be of most importance. Of the weather we can say little from our author's limited experience.

The general management of a farm, succession, soil processes, and soils of Yorkshire, are particularly noticed. The remarks on these subjects are too miscellaneous for abridgement, and afford nothing proper for an extract. The observations of the greatest utility refer, we think, to sod-burning.

On the subject of manure, we meet with an account of Newton Dale Well. It is a chalybeate at its source, and, after it has lost its steel, becomes a petrifying water, enclosing moss and other vegetable substances, with a calcareous crust. We suspect, that by the excess of fixed air, the steel and earth are suspended. The former is first deposited, as its hold is weakest, and at last the earth also falls down. This earth is sometimes burned for lime, which is the great object of the farmer for manure. Mr. Marshall gives a very particular account of the burning of lime, its expences, and its use.

In sowing, broad-cast is employed, and the land is sown a once going over. Weeds, and the methods of removing them, vermin, and the best modes of destroying them, are described at length. But we protest against the harmless, faithful dog being considered among vermin. The sickle, in Yorkshire, is in the hands of the women: the corn is dried in the swathe, though our author thinks it should be dried in the sheaf, for various reasons, which he points out.—Of the farm-yard management, we can give no detail; and of the markets a particular account would be unnecessary. Bank notes in that county are numerous, and have superseded gold, as a medium of commerce, perhaps to be again superseded, in consequence of the late failures.

The second volume commences with a description of the kinds and management of wheat: this is succeeded by descriptions of the various kinds of 'rye, barley, oats, pulse, turnips, rape, potatoes, flax, tobacco, cultivated grasses, natural grasses, horses, cattle, sheep, rabbits, swine, poultry, bees.'

It is not in our power to follow Mr. Marshall in his particular observations; but we shall select a few remarks which seem to have either utility or curiosity to recommend them: our author is no common observer.

Of the different kinds of wheat, there is a pretty accurate account, as well as of the method of varying the species, by selecting the peculiar plants, and propagating from them only. The preparation of wheat, by an arsenical ley, is peculiar to this county: it is said to be a very effectual remedy against the smut; and we have no reason to think that it can be injurious. An ounce of white arsenic is dissolved in two gallons of water, and the seed is steeped in the solution. If it produces no inflammation in the hand of the sower, we have no reason to think it will be injurious to his constitution. On consulting our medical associate, we are informed, that a solution of greater strength has been applied by Febure and himself to cancerous sores, without, at least, doing any mischief. A small quantity of rye sown among wheat is said to prevent the effects of the mildew. Oats are thrashed on the ground, in Yorkshire, often in the field, where they grow. Poultry feed on what the broom does not collect.

The rape plants are often transplanted from a part of the field which is overstocked to another, where there are few. From this practice, Mr. Marshall proposes to transplant the whole crop, as it is two years on the ground, and the weeds acquire considerable strength, so as to impoverish both the soil and the vegetable. The description of a public rape thrashing is curious; but it cannot be abridged, and it will soon probably be disused.

In Yorkshire, the potatoes, when large, are cut for sets; but the cuttings are large pieces, fully equal to a small potatoe. Varying the sorts seems to prevent the curled tops, as, indeed, every thing does which gives vigour to the plant. It is not, therefore, from fancy alone, that the sorts are changed, nor is it from real excellence that we prefer the older sorts, because from degenerating, they are become the inferior kind. Their utility as an article of fodder is considerable.

On the subject of grasses there is much useful information, which we cannot abridge. The sainfoin seems to be very permanent in a calcareous soil, or in a soil of clay and calcareous earth: its roots strike below the depth where vegetation is usually carried on. A miscellaneous opinion, that occurs on the subject of natural grasses, may be worth recording.

‘A man whose examinations are seldom superficial, is clearly of opinion, that moles are useful to the farmer. And under this idea he has not had a mole killed upon his farm during the last twenty years! He believes them to be useful in draining the soil; in communicating air to the roots of plants; in raising fresh mould upon grassland; and in *killing worms*; which, he conceives, feed upon the roots of grass and corn.

‘That moles are useful to *cold strong-textured* land, and to *grassland* in general, is probably a fact; and this may account for the opinion under notice; which was formed on soil of that description; or on grassland of a more loamy nature.

‘But admitting that moles are useful upon cold strong grassland, it does not follow that they likewise are useful on *light, thin-soiled, arable land*. Their mischiefs, here, are too obvious to be overlooked.

‘With respect to *worms*, too, moles are probably mischievous. No evidence, I apprehend, has ever been produced of their feeding on the roots of vegetables. I speak of the common earth-worm; not of the grubs of beetles, &c. They are said to draw leaves and other vegetable substances into the ground; but to what end is only conjectured. It may be in pursuance of the wisest dictates, and for the best of purposes.’

The management of hay and after-grass seems to be particularly useful, though, in some circumstances, our author appears to be in an error.

The horses of Yorkshire have been for centuries famous, and remain so. Mr. Marshall thinks that the air, the water, and the soil, contribute to their excellence; and that, for any continued period, no good horses can be bred out of that country. The breed, the method of breeding and making up; the markets, and the management of worked horses, all share his attention. The observations on the breed of horses deserve the Yorkshire breeder's regard. On the subject of cattle

too, Mr. Marshall's remarks are just. He thinks there is a real scarcity of bullocks; and that this alone has increased the price of provisions. The scarcity he attributes to the increase of horses, of tillage, of dairies, of grazing grounds, in Yorkshire, and every where of the consumption. Mr. Marshall's theory, to explain the destruction of the bees in 1783, is, we fear, without foundation. It depends on the bee bread being essential to the life of the bee, and on the opinion, that this substance is collected from the pollen of the antheræ, which are not sufficiently expanded to afford a proper nourishment in a rainy season.

Our author then examines the peculiar practices of the other districts which we have mentioned: the most interesting parts of these observations are what occurs relating to the improvement of moor-lands, and the management of rabbits. The volume concludes with a list of rates, or the prices of different articles, and a pretty full and a sufficiently accurate glossary of provincialisms. Our remarks on the utility of a collection of this kind, will be found in our review of captain Grose's work, which might derive considerable assistance from the glossary before us. If it be ever intended to preserve the fugitive remains of old English, this period must not be lost. The landscape already fades on the sight †.

The following paragraph supports an observation which we lately transcribed, that the English genitive case, as it has been called with the 's added, is in reality an adjective.

'The provincial language of East Yorkshire has no genitive case, except that of its possessive pronouns; and except when the nominative case is understood. When this is expressed, the preceding substantive becomes in effect an adjective; as, *John Hat*,—*George House*; analagous with *London porter*,—*Yorkshire batter*.'

Before we conclude, we must pay our tribute of commendation to Mr. Marshall, for his accurate account of the husbandry of Yorkshire; as well as a great variety of curious collateral observations.

Sermons on Public Occasions, and Tracts on Religious Subjects,
by R. Watson, D. D. F. R. S. Lord Bishop of Landaff.
8vo. 6s. in Boards. Evans and Son.

THOUGH we differ from the bishop of Landaff in politics, and sometimes in theology, we respect his genius and learning, and usually follow him with no little regard. Many

† Mr. Marshall makes a just remark, that there is a middle language between the vulgar dialect and the more refined English. In a little while, this middle dialect will be the only remains of provincialisms.

parts of this miscellaneous volume have been already objects of our attention. But we shall select what is new, and refer, for the rest, to our former volumes.

The first Sermon has been before published; but in a crowd of undistinguished single sermons it escaped our notice. It is never too late to repair our errors, though, in the instance before us, it was committed so long ago as the year 1769. The discourse which we allude to, was preached in Cambridge, at the Lent assize of the year just mentioned, from 1 Corinthians vi. 7. 'Now, therefore, there is utterly a fault among you, because ye go to law one with another.' This sermon, less adapted to the lawyer than the judge, is an admirable one. It traces, briefly and comprehensively, the influence of society on the conduct of mankind, the natural rights of the individual, and the changes induced by Christianity. It points out the objects and limits of human laws, while it shows their necessity, and obviates, with great precision, the objections which have been often made to the mild and forbearing system of Christianity, objections which militate against it, by stimulating the nice and jealous sense of honour, of personal courage, and of even laudable ambition. If law-suits are necessary, our author shows the manner how they should be pursued, so as not to be inconsistent with the mild benevolent spirit of the Christian doctrines.

The second Sermon has not been before printed: it was preached before the governors of Addenbrooke's Hospital, in July 1774, from Gal. vi. 10. 'As we have therefore opportunity, let us do good unto all.' The bishop does not dwell long on the trite hackneyed part of the subject. He traces the origin of the principle of benevolence, and, by examining its influence, shows that it is unstable in its foundation, and capricious in its exertions, unless when connected with the positive precept of religion in the pure beneficent dispensation of Christ. The duty of instituting hospitals is enforced, by showing their comparative superiority over other modes of charity.

The third Sermon is a vindication of the principles of the Revolution, preached before the university of Cambridge, which we examined in vol. XLI. p. 482. The fourth was preached before the same university on the anniversary of his majesty's accession to the throne (see vol. XLII. p. 472.) The fifth was also preached before the university on the day appointed for a general fast, on account of the American war, vol. XLIX. p. 316. The sixth was preached before the Lords spiritual and temporal, on the 30th of January, 1784 (LVII. 158.) The seventh was preached at the parish church of St.

Bride, before the lord mayor, on the Monday in Easter week, 1786: this Sermon is new; and, as the time is appropriated to the reports of different charities, it is also on benevolence (John xiii. 35.) but, in many respects, inferior to the former, though not without considerable merit. The different ranks, the various sects, are shown how great would be the change if they could be brought to follow this truly Christian tenet, and to love one another.

This volume contains also the discourse delivered to the clergy of the archdeaconry of Ely. We have noticed it in our Lth vol. p. 14, but an Appendix is now added, relating to some observations on the deluge, and to Dr. Watson's recommendation of the study of oriental literature. We must enlarge a little, and it shall be but a little, on this subject.

It has been observed by sir William Jones, in more than one letter written from Indostan, particularly in one addressed it seems to the bishop, that a tradition concerning the deluge exists in that country. We have often alluded to this subject, and may now observe, that the Mosaic history undoubtedly appears to imply an universal deluge; and, from comparing the accounts of different profane authors, we must admit of an universal, or of many partial ones. In this matter there is, however, some doubt: almost every author speaks of the destruction of mankind by water; but so much in the vague style of tradition, that it is impossible to say whether the world was inundated at once, or in succession. We should not be surprised, if the tradition just mentioned be afterwards found to agree in various circumstances with the Mosaic account, since that evidently alludes to the events of the East. The other relations, more immediately before us, are too vague for the determination of the question. We have said, that if the deluge was universal, the preservation of the different races must be resolved into a miracle little short of creation; but, in examining again, with critical accuracy, the tenor, and often the language of Scripture, we see no reason for believing it, from the relation of Moses, to have been universal. Our author gives a kind of history of that opinion, which supposes the present continent to have been once the sea. It is evident, that the exuviae of marine animals discovered on land, cannot be the effects of a transitory inundation; and that the continents and seas have changed their stations, we may believe to have happened in a gradual, as well as a sudden way, unless we think, as is more probable, that the whole globe was once covered with water, and that fish were the first of created animals.

The next tract in this collection is the Apology for Christianity, which occurs in our XLIII^d vol. p. 456. and the last

is the letter to the archbishop of Canterbury, which may be found in our LVth vol. p. 220. An Appendix is, however, now first added to it.

This Appendix was occasioned by an application from a meeting of curates in Lancashire, requesting his lordship's sentiments on the best means of applying for relief. The bishop's answer is singularly candid and judicious. We shall extract one passage, with the note, as the facts are, we think, of importance.

'In the diocese of Landaff there are above 240 churches and chapels; if the aggregate of the values of all these benefices, after deducting the tenths, but without deducting the land-tax and other outgoings, was to be equally divided amongst them, there would not be forty guineas a year to each place of worship.—In the diocese of Chester the clear annual income of all the established places of public worship would not, I have reason to believe, (though I speak subject to the correction of those who have better means of information) amount to above 100l. for each church or chapel.—If the clear annual values of all the churches and chapels in all the dioceses of the kingdom were collected into one sum, and that sum was divided equally amongst them, I think it would not amount to 120l. a year to each †.'

Dr. Watson observes, that on a very attentive reconsideration of this letter, he is confirmed in his opinion, that some relief may be obtained with the most perfect peace and safety, and the greatest advantage to religion and government. The best step which can, we think, be taken with propriety, is to enlarge the discretionary power of the bishop to increase the salaries of curates, where it may appear expedient and proper. Every other attempt would involve consequences so extensive and important, that we fear to recommend them. Without any great chance of arriving at the dignity of a mitre, we are unwilling to diminish the income of a diocese.

We cannot leave this volume, without expressing our obligations to Dr. Watson for it. We hope that he is not collecting his miscellaneous works with the design of writing no more; internally declaring, '*Hic cæsus artemque repono.*'

† The ground of my opinion on this point is this: I have taken the trouble to investigate the real values of above one thousand churches and chapels, taken promiscuously from several counties situated in different parts of England and Wales, and I find that the average amount is less than 120l. a year to each. This average, of above a tenth part of all the churches and chapels in England and Wales, may be above or below the average which belongs to the whole; those whose enquiries have been more extensive than mine, may speak with more certainty on the subject, but I must at present rely on the conclusion I have drawn.'

Sermons preached in the British Ambassador's Chapel at Paris, in the Years 1774, 1775, 1776. By the late rev. Paul Henry Maty, M. A. F. R. S. 8vo. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Cadell.

THE æra of these Sermons was not that of Mr. Maty's doubts and difficulties, which at last prevented him from the exercise of a profession he was well qualified to adorn. If our author at that time doubted in his belief of some part of the tenets of the church, his doubts were confined to his own breast: if he felt difficulties, they were not, at least, dragged into view; calculated by their display to raise commotions in those who possess not strength of mind enough to pursue enquiries, or to unsettle that reason which was not probably designed as the sovereign arbiter in such subjects*. Even truth, the glimmering ray which can in the most favourable circumstances be perceived, independent of absolute revelation, in theological enquiries, is dearly bought by contest, in which religion itself may receive a fatal wound: but to return. Mr. Maty, in these Sermons, is rather a moralist than a theologian; disputed points are banished from his pulpit, and he teaches his audience the purest system of the gospel-dispensation. In these Sermons, selected by his friends for the benefit of his family, there are some marks of a settled plan, but it is not pursued very far. We know not whether the author's ill health, his interrupted office, and, at last, his delicate scruples, prevented its completion: or whether the editors, in their choice, may have selected the most interesting discourses without any view to his design. While Mr. Maty purposed, alternately with moral discussions, to give a system of natural and revealed religion, we can only perceive two Sermons on each subject which are connected for this purpose: the other discourses which, at first sight, appeared to be a part of his plan, are not in their conduct united with the former ones.

The first Sermon on natural religion (the second in the volume) is from 1 Kings xviii. 21. The preacher shows the extreme absurdity of indecision in matters of so great moment, while there is a possibility of arriving at conviction; and he points out, with great propriety, the advantages which must result from religious contemplation, and a survey of the dictates of the Almighty. The second Sermon (the fifth in the order), on natural religion is from Psalm cxxxix. 7—12. It treats of that attribute of the deity which reason can never comprehend, his omnipresence, with which the preacher connects his wisdom and his goodness. The sixth and seventh Sermons, from

* An appendix to these Sermons has been since published; but it contains only our author's reasons for leaving the profession of a minister of the church of England formerly printed in the Gentleman's Magazine. It is printed, we understand, without the consent of the editors of this volume.

Pſalm xvi. 9. though not immediately connected in the plan, are of a ſimilar tendency. They enforce the neceſſity of ſetting God always before us in all our views, in all our deſigns : he is repreſented as our guide in action, and our ſtrength in trouble. Theſe two Sermons are highly creditable to the author ; they ſhow that his piety was manly and rational, his judgment well regulated and clear. We ſhall ſelect one excellent paſſage.

‘ Great as the advantages are which we may promiſe ourſelves from ſetting God continually before us in the physical world, there are no leſs to be expected, if we conſider him in the moral. He has not, indeed, thought proper to make ſo clear a diſcovery of himſelf in the latter, as he hath done in the former. Order and harmony prevail in every part of the one ; they ſeem totally excluded from the other : diſorder and confuſion ſeem to reign in their ſtead, inſomuch that the recluſe, who in ſolitary contemplation ſhould have diſcovered in heaven the Divinity on his throne, relapſes into doubt and fear, and would be liable to uncertainty, ſhould he mix again in the commerce of the world. Not to accumulate inſtances of this, I ſhall only mention one. There is nothing which ſo much ſurprizes us in hiſtory, as the accounts we meet with of the ſudden riſe and proſperity of great and powerful empires, except it be their aſudden declenſion and diſſolution. A capricious fortune ſeems ſo much to domineer in both, that it is difficult to refer either (as the believer muſt do) to the ſuperintendence of a wiſe and juſt Providence. Shall we ſay, in order to ſatiſfy ourſelves, that, as many curious proceſſes are hourly carrying on in the caverns of the earth, which, for want of nicer organs, we are unable to diſcern ; ſo our minds want the degrees of accuracy and ſubtilty neceſſary to trace the cauſes of events ſo remote from the times in which we dwell ? Shall we compare ourſelves to travellers, whom national prejudices, want of time, and languages, and other untoward circumſtances, prevent from acquiring a ſufficient knowlege of the manners of the people, and conſtitution of the countries through which they paſs, to form a judgment of the revolutions which have happened in them ? Might not a modeſt enquirer urge, that what appears to be rough and incoherent, may be part of an unfiniſhed but beautiful and uniform plan ? This, and much more which may be ſaid, will be ſufficient to inſpire us with humility. There are, however, two leading obſervations, which he cannot fail of making, who has been uſed conſtantly to ſet his God before him. In the firſt place, he will diſcover that there is one inviſible power in the world, which has been conſtantly and invariably the ſame amidſt every revolution which time has produced in others. “ They have periſhed, but thou ſhalt endure ; they have changed, but thou art the ſame, and thy years ſhall not fail.”

‘ A ſecond truth, no leſs evident than the former, is, that national virtue and national proſperity are inſeparably connected with each other. There have been men, I know, bold enough to erect altars to their own vices, and inſcribe them with the pompous

pompous names of patriotism and public spirit ; men who have seriously set about to prove, that the duties of the man misbecome the citizen, and that general benefits may be expected from what brings ruin, and shame, and death upon the individual. As there is no error so pernicious to society, happily for it there is none so easy to be confuted. Consult the historians of different ages, and different parties ; search the records yourselves, you will find them uniform in their depositions ; you will find that temperance and justice, moderation and good faith, have been the arts by which empires have been acquired and preserved ; and that, in proportion as the opposite vices have prevailed, they have decayed and been destroyed : you will conclude, that righteousness exalteth a nation, sin is always the reproach, and in time must become the ruin of any people.'

If there are two Sermons on the proofs of revealed religion, they are the ninth and the eleventh. The first is from Luke ii. 13 and 14. the other from the twenty-ninth and thirtieth verses of the same chapter. In the ninth Sermon, the arguments drawn to enforce the duty of prayer from the text, and the remarks that the angels join in celebrating the redemption, though they were not included in the fall, are ingenious and just.

As we have shortly mentioned those Sermons which seem to have been written in consequence of some preconcerted plan, we shall turn to others, where we shall follow the order observed in the volume.

The first Sermon is from Proverbs viii. 27th to 31st verse. The substance of the discourse, and the object which the preacher attempts to prove, is, that in wisdom he made them all. The description of the text is, undoubtedly, an eastern allegory : this is not one of the most advantageous specimens of Mr. Maty's performances. The third Sermon is a proper and powerful dissuasive against gaming, as resulting from an avaricious disposition. ' He that maketh haste to be rich shall not be innocent.'

In the fourth Sermon, from Mark vi. 26. Mr. Maty seems inclined to believe, that the death of John, in consequence of Herod's oath, was a collusion between the tetrarch and Herodias. Many good reasons are given for this opinion, but they will not entirely overbalance the opposite ones. We shall select our author's sentiments on the subject of rash and imprudent oaths.

' There are two mistakes pretty generally run into with regard to oaths ; the first consists in thinking we cannot be bound at all without this sanction, the other in imagining it can supercede moral obligations. As to the first, we should remember, that if God has permitted us to make use of his holy name, and, as it were, to make a personal witness of him in our cause, he did it on account of the hardness of our hearts, not to furnish us with

an occasion to deceive our fellow-creatures, but to give them as much security as possible against our natural propensity to do so. Considered in this light, an oath is an ignominious badge, a mark of slavery which every man carries about him, to let those who have any dealings with him know that his passions are his masters, and that he is not to be treated with as a free agent. Far, therefore, from giving occasion to suspect we want this security to engage us, we should behave in such a manner as to have it thought whenever a testimony upon oath is required from us, that the nicety of the law, and not the frailty of the man, requires this precaution. We should recollect that God wants not the solemnity of human forms, to make him ever present, and ever attentive, and be persuaded, that a plain promise has no sooner escaped our lips, than it is registered in the book of heaven, one day to be produced in evidence of acquittal or condemnation. No doubt, had Herod only promised, he would have been as strictly bound to perform what depended upon himself alone, though it had been ever so much against his own interest; farther he could not go, nor can we. It is unlawful for a man who has great and acknowledged abilities, to plead he is restrained by oath from engaging in his country's service; it is sacrilege to think of gaining heaven by appropriating sums of money to charitable uses, whilst there is a fellow-creature upon earth who has a legal demand to make on us. It is as contrary to religion as to humanity, to pretend we should have been willing to be reconciled to those who have offended against us, were it not that we have sworn never to forgive them. Leave thy sacrifice upon the altar—if, like Herod, thou hast brought thyself into such a dilemma as not to be assured of ever being able to return and offer it, at thy own peril let it be—but leave thy sacrifice upon the altar, and be reconciled to thy brother: I tell thee thou shalt be beaten with fewer stripes than he who seeks to persuade mankind it is his heavenly Father who forbids to be merciful.

The eighth Sermon is from Psalm cxix. 60. in which the preacher urges, with great force, the danger of delaying to discharge our duty to God. The tenth Sermon is on the Resurrection (Acts xxiv. 8.) and its object is to show that unassisted reason, though it might suspect, could never clearly establish this doctrine: its complete assurance was from revelation alone. The twelfth Sermon is on the twenty-fourth verse of the fourth chapter of St. John: 'God is a spirit, and they that worship him must worship him in spirit and in truth.' God is immaterial, and our worship must be as distinguishable for its purity as for its sincerity.

The thirteenth is the only occasional Sermon in the collection; it was preached the first fast-day after the evacuation of Long Island, and the taking of New York. The text is: 'For all this, his anger is not turned away, but his hand is stretched out still.'

still.' The observation, that in the midst of triumph defeat may be preparing, was almost prophetic; yet the lesson may be in general salutary, and teach us never to triumph while the present unstable circumstances render us again liable to be depressed. The conclusion of this Sermon is a very proper one: national prosperity, Mr. Maty contends, can be best procured by national virtue, and that in its turn by the vigorous exertion of each individual in the great work of reformation.

The following Sermon is on Proverbs ix. 10. It examines what influence the fear of God, or more properly the reverence, since it must include love and fear, should have on the conduct of our lives and our enjoyments. The fifteenth Sermon is on Ephesians v. 11. in which we are enjoined not only to avoid all fellowship with the works of darkness, not only to avoid a bad action, but also to reprove them when we observe them in others. The last Sermon is on Proverbs xix. 1.

'Better is the poor that walketh in his integrity, than he that is perverse in his lips and is a fool.' The duties of the poor, who may be said to walk in their integrity, are content, humility, industry, honesty, frugality, sobriety, chastity, and religion. These are all distinctly explained and enforced; and they are shown to be equally productive of virtue and happiness.

These are the several subjects of this posthumous volume: if we consider the object of its publication, it will disarm criticism; if the execution, it may defy the critics darts. We do not indeed meet with profound discussions, intricate or uncertain speculations; the language is not laboured into force, or polished into elegance; but with just reflections, we meet with the salutary lessons of pure morality. Had these discourses been corrected by the author for the press they might have been more accurately finished, but they would not have been more useful; they might have been more complete compositions, but they would not have been better Sermons.

ΣΑΜΨΩΝ ΑΓΩΝΙΣΤΗΣ. *Johannis Miltoni Samson Agonistes*
Græco Carmine Redditus cum Versione Latina. A Georgio
Henrico Glasse, A.M. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Faulder.

OF Mr. Glasse's translation of *Caractacus* we gave some account in our LVIIth vol. p. 1. He here opens his pre-fatory address with not only desiring, but earnestly requesting (*efflagito*) his reader's indulgence. He professes his having laboured to make the present performance more polished and accurate than that which a few years since, when but little skilled in poetical composition (*Musarum pene hospes & peregrinus*)

grinus) he submitted to the inspection of the learned. He quotes an observation from Dawes to this effect: 'He had experienced the same fate which had befallen many others who in latter times had written in Greek, that the translation which in his younger days appeared to him as a testimony of his consummate skill in that language, now struck him as abounding with inaccuracies.' Supported by so great an authority, Mr. Glasse professes that he needs not blush to acknowledge the same.—He proceeds to return his thanks to those gentlemen who, though most eminent themselves for learning, patronized him and his works; who candidly overlooked his errors, (*Quanta quanta essent in Juvenili opere παραρματα mitiorem in partem interpretabantur;*) and who, though they allowed that himself perhaps, and his work, deserved some censure, thought themselves culpable should they wound him with reproaches: (*se tamen indignos ducebant, qui me vulnerarent conviciis.*) He immediately adds, that the envy and scurrility of the half-learned was no less advantageous to him, than the courtesy and kindness of the truly learned was delightful. That while a Plotius, a Varius, a Mæcenas, and a Virgil, loaded his performance with praise that even exceeded his hopes, a certain unknown Pantilius, *alia ex parte*, took it into his head to carp at it, to catch hold of every opportunity to calumniate it, and to pass sentence (*nigro signare calculo*) on all its faults, however trifling and venial. Nay, that he proceeded so far as to summon the terrified author to the * judgment-seat of the learned (no very characteristic employment for a Pantilius) there to undergo the most severe punishment. Caractacus, however, got the better, and still stands firm; Mr. Glasse acknowledges that, according to the right (*jure causæ*) he would have had a tumble, 'but was snatched from the greatest danger by the goodness and candour of his judges.' Is not this somewhat contradictory in itself, as well as to the declaration made before, that the envy and scurrility of the half-learned, instead of endangering the success of this performance, contributed towards it?

Not only from the extract we have given, but some other passages in the preface, it appears that Mr. Glasse was extremely sensible that his Caractacus was by no means free from faults. In a subsequent page, after observing that Milton's Samson Agonistes was formed after the purest models of the

† Πρωταγωνιστὴς is the original word, which was a place at Athens where those who had deserved well of their country were supported at the public expence. We could not well make sense of the passage but by rendering it as we have done. If we have misrepresented the author's meaning, we ask his pardon.

Grecian drama, and assigning his reasons for the present attempt, he adds: 'Illud enim haud exigui ponderis esse arbitrabar posse me, erroribus & solæcismis, qui in Caractaco extiterant, cautius in Samfone evitatis, gratiam facere prioris incuriæ.' Why then should Mr. Glasse be angry at having those defects pointed out by others which he is conscious of himself? defects that, by his own account, were of themselves sufficient to confute a report that the translation of Caractacus was made by his father, not himself.

* Quamvis illud quod est in me literarum ex quo fonte hauserim sentio—quamvis patrem video mihi principem ad ingrediendam horum studiorum rationem semper extitisse—quamvis hortatore eodem, socioque, et quodammodo auspice, nunquam non usus sum—mentem tamen is meam cum præceptis tum exemplo ita instituit atque informavit, ut a mendaciis, sui memor, quam maxime essem alienus. Enimvero ipsa quæ in Caractaco scaturiunt errata, ipsa ambitiosa ornamenta, ipsa denique vocabula a Græci sermonis consuetudine abhorrentia, criminis hujusce suspicionem et a me et ab illo omnino omnem amoliuntur. Hæc enim vitia quot et quanta sint, qui diligenter et æquo animo secum reputaverint, ii necesse est conclament, "Pol haud paternum hoc dedisti."

On what account does Mr. Glasse arrogate the sole privilege of pointing out the faults in Caractacus? Because his learned friends have been wilfully blind, must others, out of compliment, shut their eyes to them? Is a Pantilius, who censures what is censurable, more blameable than those learned judges whose kindness he celebrates, at the same time that he arraigns * their justice? But who is Pantilius? We recollect no illiberal strictures in *any* publication on Mr. Glasse's Caractacus. We, indeed, pointed out some errors in that work, but did not treat it with half the severity he himself has done. We gave it a gentle lash or two, such as we do not think his learned friends could in their hearts greatly disapprove, but to mangle it with cruelty, to be outrageous in our abuse (*vulnerare conviciis*) is what our own would never permit. If Mr. Glasse really alludes to us, we can assure him with the utmost sincerity, that we never *envied* him in the slightest degree. Of himself and station in life we know no more than what the title page informs us; and his superior excellency as a writer, if we are to judge from his own account of Caractacus, was scarcely sufficient to excite so malevolent a passion. As to

* We have rendered the passage which we allude to above, and here annex the original, that the reader may determine whether it will fairly bear any other interpretation: 'Vicit interea, rectoque in hunc usque diem talo stetit Caractacus, casurus ille quidem jure causæ, sed per bonitatem judicium et æquanimitatem e summo periculo ereptus.'

Scurrility, we trust we never were, nor will be scurrilous; and though the *verè docti* claim a privilege, from time immemorial to the *present day*, of railing and calling names in a classical language; we think it a very bad example. We allowed Mr. Glasse to be a very good Greek scholar, and his translation, with some exceptions, to have been extremely well executed. Had we praised it without those exceptions, his own confession would have convicted us of partiality. We thought that, as a learned man, his time might have been better employed as to the service of literature in general:—we think so still;—but surely this was no bad compliment to his talents. His learned friends, however, he tells us, thought otherwise, and as to his *own service*, he has probably acted right in following their opinion. We do not find, however, that he is advised to any farther attempts of the kind. He bids adieu to the tragic Muse, and informs us that more weighty studies demand his attention.

Towards the conclusion of his Preface, Mr. Glasse drops the complimentary style with which he first addressed his reader, and, like the hero of his drama, sets his critical Philistines at defiance.

‘De reliquo, res est una, de qua ut certiore faciam te, cum voluntas mea, tum officii ratio postulat: scilicet opus hoc recensuisse, et quidem approbasse, patrem illum meum venerabilem meique amantissimum—Cl. Burgesium.—Cl. Parrum. Horum ego nomina, et sciorum dicacitati, et pseudo-criticorum cavillationibus, veluti quoddam *σάνος καὶ πύργον* constanter et animose opposuerim.’

We congratulate Mr. Glasse on his shield and tower of strength, and have no inclination to fire our small shot against so formidable a bastion; but Patroclus, though covered with the arms of Achilles, had a vulnerable part, and the castle that so proudly ‘laughs a siege to scorn,’ however strong its out-works may appear, is often undermined with ease, by its having been built on a sandy foundation. To drop the metaphor, we acknowledge that Samson Agonistes is translated in a masterly manner, and seems a genuine offspring of the Grecian Muse. But still the *cui bono* occurs. Has it heightened the beauties of Milton, or pointed out new ones to the inattentive reader? Has it rendered the study of the Greek language less difficult, or elucidated any obscurities? Unless the ultimate view of this performance, and the translation of Caractacus, was to convince the world that Mr. Glasse was an exceeding good Grecian, we cannot but consider the attempt, after paying our due compliments to him for the execution of it, as answering no purpose of any moment, and consequently fundamentally wrong. *A Dis-*

A Dissertation on the Message from St. John the Baptist to our Saviour. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

To all attentive readers of the Gospel, the object of the Baptist's message has appeared obscure, and almost unintelligible. 'Art thou he that should come, or do we look for another?' To John, who prepared the way before him, an answer could give no additional information; and yet the conclusion of our Saviour's reply seems to convey some reproof, 'Blessed is he whosoever shall not be offended in me.' The cause of the message has, therefore, been referred to John's disciples; and it has been supposed, that their doubts, or their incredulity, induced John to send them with a message, which would draw from our Saviour those instructions, and those miracles, which were necessary to confirm their faith. Yet our author shows that there are no instances of disaffection, or of disbelief in John's disciples, to warrant this supposition; and that the reproof seems rather to be directed to their master, than to themselves. He therefore proposes a new solution, and supports it with great ingenuity.—We shall give its outline.

When the prophets speak of John, they speak only of his being a messenger, to announce the coming of our Lord.—John knew that this was his character, and this was his designation; but when this mission was completed, when he was thrown into prison by Herod, and subjected to the resentment of Herodias, his mind, cheerless and desponding, might look for a miraculous interposition from the Christ whose coming he had declared, and he might be induced to gently remind him of the mode of conduct which would so fully demonstrate his divine mission. This solution gives a consistency to our Saviour's answer, and a force to his reproof.—He came to heal the sick, to give sight to the blind, and feet to the lame. It did not depend on the event of John's imprisonment to stamp his character as the Saviour of the world, or as the Son of God. It could therefore be no disgrace to his character, if he suffered the usual train of events to arise from their usual causes, without any interposition. The weakness which John expressed in the moment of trial is no imputation on his character, since our Lord's disciples occasionally fell, and were forgiven. And, indeed, the subsequent discourse of our Saviour seems to be calculated to remove this stain from his memory. 'What went ye out for to see? A reed shaken with the wind,' a man unsteady and irresolute. Whatever he may have appeared, in this instance he was in reality more than a prophet. Our author shows that even prophets, as we have formerly contended, cannot be supposed to know every transaction, and that they only foretell those circumstances which are revealed to them for particular purposes.

We have given this short analysis of the dissertation before us, because, from its ingenuity and learning, it deserves particular attention. It is written with great propriety and perspicuity, and adds credit to the author as a scholar and a divine.

The Battle of Bosworth-field, between Richard the Third, and Henry Earl of Richmond, August 22, 1485. By W. Hutton. F. A. S. S. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Baldwin.

THE battle of Bosworth-field, as being decisive of a contest which, during a period of thirty years, had deluged England with the blood of its subjects, is doubtless one of the most memorable events of the kind in this country. This action has accordingly been described by several writers, but by none so minutely as the present author, who is more than an antiquarian—he is an enthusiast on the subject. Bosworth-field appears to be classic ground to Mr. Hutton; and we speak not without sufficient authority when we affirm, that he has surveyed this favourite object of his researches with an attention, an ardour, and a perseverance, never before displayed by any English historian or antiquary. He informs us, that he was interested, even from his childhood, in this important event; that he has made several visits, in the space of eighteen years, to the field itself, merely for information and inspection; and that he has likewise made many enquiries into the traditions in the vicinity of Bosworth-field, and found it the most copious source of intelligence.

After so great, and long-continued exertion, Mr. Hutton must have been extremely unfortunate, indeed, not to have collected a variety of information relative to this celebrated scene; but whether the materials will prove equally interesting to others, we shall not take upon us to determine. Perhaps there are fastidious readers who will be of opinion, that along with the laurels of the field he has gathered not a small quantity of chaff. Mr. Hutton, however, informs us, that Bosworth-field, ‘everlastingly famous,’ is nearly of an oval form, about two miles long, and one broad. But not content with this general description, he proceeds to give its measurement more exactly; telling us that it may be fifteen hundred acres. He adds, that ‘not one human being resides upon this desolate field, or near it; as if *that* place was studiously avoided which had been the scene of blood. The remains of two wretched mud-walled tenements are upon the very places once covered by the troops, Hewit’s and another; but the families are fled, and the buildings in ruin.’

We agree with our author, that to have a clear view of this battle, it will be necessary to expunge from our idea the present appearance of the country, and view it, uninclosed, as it was in 1485.

With regard to the leaders of both armies at the battle of Bosworth, the character given of them by Mr. Hutton, if not

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very elaborate, is at least sufficiently expressive. 'But were I allowed to treat royalty with plainness, says he, Richard was an accomplished rascal, and Henry not one jot better.' In the following passage the author discriminates them with fidelity.

'The crown was now to be disputed, with the utmost acrimony, by two of the ablest politicians that ever wore one; they were both wise, and both crafty; equally ambitious, and equally strangers to probity. Richard was better versed in arms, Henry was better served. Richard was brave, Henry a coward. Richard was about five feet four, rather runted, but only made crooked by his enemies; and wanted six weeks of thirty-three. Henry was twenty-seven, slender, and near five feet nine, with a saturnine countenance, yellow hair, and grey eyes.'

Our author, after reciting the speeches of the two princes to their respective armies, observes, that in disputing for a crown, they descend below the gentleman, and vilify each other in the language of two porters disputing for a truss. We think this remark is applicable only on the part of Richard; for though Henry's speech contains likewise invectives, it is not expressed in the language of illiberality.

Mr. Hutton has not been at more pains in examining Bosworth-field, than in collecting the incidents of the battle, which he describes with all the minuteness that historical information can supply, and intermixes with reflections, sometimes not a little characteristic of eccentricity. He has likewise interwoven in his narrative a few episodal details, which we suspect are the fruit of his enquiries in the vicinity of Bosworth-field. What degree of credit is justly due to information of this kind, we shall not at present attempt to determine; for we have no desire to sap the foundation of a structure which the author has been erecting, with peculiar fondness, for more than eighteen years. We shall even communicate to our readers the following intelligence, as he seems to think it of importance. 'This battle, destructive to many, furnished the country people with domestic utensils. A blacksmith assured me he had found a sword-blade, which he used for a drill-bow. An old woman converted part of another into a hanging spit, for roast-meat, so that it continued its ancient practice of wounding flesh.' Mr. Hutton's observations are of such a kind that we need not remark their peculiarity; and we shall therefore conclude with wishing his readers as much pleasure in perusing his account of the battle of Bosworth-field, as he seems to have enjoyed in surveying the scene of that conflict.

A Sum-

A Summary and Philosophic View of the Genius, Character, Manners, Government, and Politics of the Dutch. 8vo. 4s. Hookham.

THE professed design of this author is to delineate the real character of the Dutch, with the view of removing any national prejudice which the late conduct of the United Provinces may have excited among the people of our own country. The design is liberal, as well as conducive to the just estimation of an ancient ally; and the author appears to have enjoyed good opportunities of making himself acquainted with the subject. He begins with reciting the difficulties and dangers attending the formation of the republic of the Seven United Provinces; describing its small beginnings, and hopeless condition; the intrepid behaviour of the Dutch in throwing off the yoke of Spain, and resisting the invasion of France; their patience and resolution in contending with, and surmounting the obstacles of nature; with their domestic regulations and improvements, and their maxims in business and mercantile affairs.

The author next recites the causes of the populousness and opulence of Holland. These he justly ascribes to the facility with which foreigners of all denominations may settle in this country, and become partakers of its privileges; but particularly to the spirit of religious toleration, for which the Dutch are remarkable.

Our author observes, that to the unthinking and vacant part of mankind, no people are likely to prove more unacceptable than the Dutch, who, of all nations, possess the least of those superficial attractions, the acquisition of which is highly prized in many other countries of Europe. He admits that the Dutch, in consequence of their habitual circumspection, are apt to degenerate into a contemptuous indifference for all persons, the prosperity of whose circumstances is not well ascertained; and he accounts for this effect in the following manner.

‘ The reasons of this harsh, uncouth disposition are obvious; and may be deduced from their natural and political situation. As it is through dint of wealth alone they support their country, and make a respectable figure, they are apt to build too much on that foundation of their grandeur: of consequence they entertain too excessive a reverence for the possessors, and too advantageous an opinion of the acquirers of great property. Such alone they account men worthy of note. Their personal qualifications, whether deserving of praise or of censure, are passed over little noticed, and become in a manner totally eclipsed by the superior blaze of their riches; an object which the most partial admirers of the Dutch will readily allow, engrosses their attention and esteem, and preponderates among them far beyond its intrinsic merit.’

Even a moderate share of relaxation in the pastimes usual among the genteel classes in other countries, was till lately viewed in an odious light by the greater part of the people in Holland: their severity, in this respect, has suffered some abatement; but they still regard dissipation with an unfavourable aspect, especially in those whose circumstances and rank in life seem not well suited to such indulgence. The Hague, however, our author observes, is esteemed as polite a place as any in Europe, and the Dutch people of figure who inhabit it, inferior to none of the fashionable classes in any other country, whenever they think it incumbent on themselves to exert their talents in the same pursuits.

Some writers have represented the Dutch as a rough, unpolished, ill-bred people; but our author affirms that this character is applicable only to the vulgar classes.

‘The truth is, (says he) the Dutch are in general a candid, down-right people. As application and industry are the only paths they seek to tread in, and the only helps they chuse to depend on, they neither study nor stand in need of much refinement in their behaviour. It is usually attended with much frankness and simplicity; and openness of thought, and freedom of speech characterise most of them; and they seldom are conversant in fraud and deceit; for which, indeed, their native bluntness very happily disqualifies them.

‘This neglect of the arts of insinuation, or, what some have not improperly termed, artifice and flattery, has subjected them to the censure of the difficult part of mankind, who require blandishments, and a complimentary stile from all they meet. But still, if deeds are preferable to discourses, there lies no just complaint against them for want of philanthropy; in the real exercise of which they are by no means deficient, as abundant proofs may be given.

‘That they are of a friendly disposition, and easy to live with, is evident beyond dispute, from the number of strangers who settle and prosper in Holland, without exciting any jealousy among the natives. They are, perhaps of all mankind the least tinctured with the vice of nationality, and deal out their good will and favour indiscriminately to all who deserve them, without much inquiries about their religion or country. In these respects, the Dutch, no less to their emolument than credit, seem to be the people most practically sensible of the rectitude of that maxim, which condemns to oblivion those accidents in a man’s character, which, as he cannot prevent them, he is not answerable for.’

The author afterwards takes a view of the policy of the Dutch in their various domestic regulations; the canals, the bank of Amsterdam, the good government of the fleets and armies, the diligence and exactness of the Dutch in fulfilling the duties of public employments, with a number of other circumstances, which

which it is unnecessary for us to specify. The whole is calculated to give the most favourable impression of the Dutch, both in their private and public conduct. We think that in some particulars, the author has a little exaggerated the virtues, and diminished the blemishes of their national character; but the instances are so inconsiderable, that they rather evince his candour and liberality than justify any charge of misrepresentation or error.

Considerations on the relative Situation of France, and the United States of America. Translated from the French of Etienne Claviere, and J. P. Brissot de Warville. 8vo. 6s. Longman.

THE separation of America from Great Britain has opened to the French an extensive commerce, which it is doubtless their business to cultivate with all possible assiduity. To rouse a spirit of enterprise for this purpose, and to direct its operations, is the design of the work now before us, the authors of which appear to have meditated on the subject with great attention. It is, however, a circumstance mortifying to their zeal, that the people of France, in general, discover an indifference for the prosecution of this commerce; occasioned, as these authors suppose, by the want of information, and ultimately by the despotism which restrains the freedom of the press in that country.

The authors begin with taking a view of exterior commerce; the circumstances which led to it, and the means of insuring it to a nation; considering this commerce afterwards in its means of exchange, and its balance. They then proceed to apply the principles previously laid down, to the reciprocal commerce of France and the United States. They observe that France has every means of procuring a great commerce, and such as must ensure it to her in the United States; that her productions are proper for them, and that their particular interior circumstances oblige them to engage in this commerce.

These authors are sometimes at great pains to prove propositions which nobody will deny; and at other times endeavour to enforce propositions by arguments which are far from being convincing. After establishing it as a principle, that it is exterior commerce which renders a nation great and flourishing, they maintain that the American states ought never to cultivate this traffic, and that they should rather invite Europeans to their parts than frequent those of the European states. We shall readily admit, that for some years the Americans ought chiefly to devote their attention to agriculture; but, the au-

thors before us carry this injunction to too great a latitude, when they propose that it should be cultivated to the total neglect of manufactures and exterior commerce, through all succeeding ages.

‘ By preventing, or at least retarding the rise of manufactures within their provinces, the Americans will stop the decacy of morals and public spirit: for if manufactures bring gold into the states, they bring at the same time a poison which undermines them. They resemble a number of individuals whose nature and morals are at once corrupted: they form and accustom men to servitude, and give in a republic a preponderance to Aristocratical principles, and by accumulating riches in a small number of hands, they cause republics to incline to Aristocracy.’

That ‘ manufactures form and accustom men to servitude,’ is a new doctrine in politics, not easily reconcileable with experience. Both manufactures and commerce, so far from being unfavourable to liberty, are, in reality, the most effectual means of promoting it; and it is by the spirit of independence which they have introduced, that, in our own country, the democratical part of the constitution has risen to its present importance. If the Americans be exposed to any danger from Aristocratical ascendancy, they may experience it as much in agriculture as in the prosecution of manufactures. For, unless they introduce an equal division of property, by an agrarian law, there will always remain a political influence attached to the proprietors of land, in proportion to the extent of their possessions.

The authors next give a detail of the importations to be made from France into the United States, and of the wants of the United States, and the productions of France which correspond to them. Three questions are agitated in this part of the work. 1st. ‘ Is it proper for free America to cultivate the vine and to make wine?’ The authors maintain the negative, and endeavour to prove that the vine is an incommodious, and not a very lucrative property; that wine at too low a price would be a dangerous production in republics; and that it is better to get wine from abroad. 2. ‘ Ought not free America, in renouncing this culture, to give the preference to French wines?’ This question the authors determine very laconically, by affirming, that the French wines are, without dispute, the most wholesome and agreeable. 3. ‘ What means ought to be taken to ensure them a preference?’ They answer, by meliorating the cultivation of the vine, improving the manner of making wine, and instituting establishments which would render the profits less precarious. For effectuating these several purposes, different means are proposed.

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The importations to be made from France into the American States, according to these authors, are wines, brandy, cloth, linens, silks, ribbands, silk stockings, and various other articles; among which, notwithstanding the warm exhortations given by these authors to the Americans against the encouragement of luxury, we find gold and silver laces enumerated.

We insert the following extract as it not only contains some acknowledgements which are favourable to the British woollen manufactures, but justifies the policy adopted by the legislature, with respect to the exportation of wool.

‘ We owe little gratitude to those of our speculators, who first, and at the beginning of the revolution, dispersed our cloths in the United States. If one spark of public spirit had animated them, they would have perceived the precious and honourable service which they were able to render to their country in these first adventures, by giving to the Americans a great idea of the state of our manufactures. These people were well disposed by the success France gave them, to cherish its inhabitants, to esteem their character, and receive their productions. They were well disposed to abjure the contempt and aversion with which the English had inspired them for their rivals and their productions, and to give them the preference in every thing. Why has avarice, by a miserable calculation, rendered these good dispositions of no effect? Men were willing to gain, to gain greatly; to make what is called a good stroke, in taking advantage of the distress of the Americans, and forcing them to take those commodities which were unfit for every other market.

‘ This dishonesty has counterbalanced the service rendered them: for the imprudent and wretched young man, whose throat is cut by an usurer, owes him no acknowledgement. A greater evil to France has been the consequence—her cloths have lost their reputation in the United States. But let the Americans undeceive themselves; let them not attribute to the nation, the fault of a few individuals; let them not have a bad opinion of our cloths, because some bad ones have been sent to them. The same accident would have happened to English cloths, if in a like case, there had been English merchants avaricious enough and so far strangers to the public good, as to send their refuse to the United States.

‘ The Americans who come among us, study the nature of the intercourse, which we shall one day have with the United States; they know that our manufacturers possess all the means which give to English cloths their reputation; that they make them in the same manner, and that the superfines are superior to those of England; that in general dying is better understood with us and carried to a greater perfection: in short that it depends but on some circumstances, easy to be got over, to make the cheapness of our workmanship assure us the preference to the English with respect to cloths,

‘ Why do our manufacturers of cloths contend with so great a disadvantage against those of England? It is here necessary to develop the cause; it is the surest means of encouraging government to take every measure, which will, without extraordinary or forced expedients that are of short duration, restore us to all the advantages we have received from nature. Confidence will be restored to the Americans when they see the few obstacles we have to surmount.

‘ Lord Sheffield, in avowing the superiority of our fine cloths, and of their cheapness, observes, that the greatest consumption of the Americans is of common cloths, with respect to which France cannot enter into a competition with England. And he draws from it the judicious consequence, that the inconvenience of dividing the demands to compose assortments, and the consideration of the small quantity of fine cloth necessary to form them, will cause these to be ordered in England, notwithstanding the advantage there would be in getting them from France.

‘ But why should we not furnish common cloths to the United States; we, whose workmanship is at a lower price than that of the English? It is because in common cloths, cheapness of the raw material is more essential than that of workmanship, and that the English have wools not only better but cheaper than we have. And for why? Because they gather their own wool, and that, except the wools of Spain indispensable to superfine cloths, far from standing in need of foreign wools, they can even spare a considerable surplus to other nations, notwithstanding the prodigious use they make of them in their own manufactures, whilst we are obliged to import from abroad more than one half of the wool necessary to ours, which are, without comparison, less numerous and considerable than those of England.’

The authors afterwards enumerate the various articles which America may furnish in return for importations from France. These are, tobacco, fish, whale oil, spermaceti candles, corn, and flour; masts, yards, and other timbers for the navy; furs and skins; rice, indigo, flax-seed, turpentine, pitch, tar, &c.

From several principles and arguments advanced by these authors in the course of this work, we cannot help suspecting them to be actuated with a design of increasing the commercial interests of France at the expence of those of America. But the United States are, probably, too sharp-sighted to be rendered the dupes of foreign artifice, in adjusting the establishment of their own policy.

The Temporal Government of the Pope's State. 8vo. 4s.
Johnson.

THE spiritual despotism of the popes is a singular phenomenon in politics, and the temporal government of their state is not less extraordinary. If the wisest human institutions contain the seeds of their own dissolution, they are, indeed,

deed, so plentifully disseminated in the Patrimony of St. Peter, that it is surprising they have not long since produced the most fatal effects. Yet this hierarchical government, involved in maxims apparently repugnant to sound policy, and in some particulars replete with absurdity, has continued its existence through many centuries, in contradiction to the most general calculations of political duration. The immense sums of money poured into Rome from all the catholic countries, have hitherto been sufficient to counterpoise all the defects of internal œconomy; and the extreme veneration paid to the sovereign of the country, on account of the sanctity of his character, has counteracted those pernicious principles in the constitution which no secular authority alone could ever have effectually resisted.

It appears, that in the decision of all causes, both civil and criminal, the ordinary judges are bound to the observance not only of all municipal edicts and ordinances enacted from time to time by the respective pontiffs, but of the Code of Justinian, the Pandects, and other ancient Roman institutions, where they are not contradicted by the former. But the pope will sometimes advocate a particular cause to himself. He is not bound to the observance of any written laws in his decision, but may supersede them by his supreme authority; and from this determination there is no appeal.

He may likewise at his pleasure alter or annul the edicts of his predecessors; but no particular rescript of the pope can constitute a general rule or precedent of law, being always understood to be limited to the precise case decided by it.

In criminal causes, the pope seldom interferes, though all sentences of condemnation must be reported to him by the respective judges, and his approbation obtained before execution. But he can alter the punishment, or pardon the delinquent altogether if he pleases; though perhaps there is no example of his aggravating the punishment.

In some extraordinary cases, and generally where a publication of the crime might produce scandal, the pope, by a private billet to the governor of Rome, will order an individual to be arrested, and sent to the galleys, without mentioning the crime, and only saying in general terms, '*Causis nobis notis.*'

In all matters of taxation, duties, and imposts, the pope is the only arbiter; but this power seems to be of modern date.

Our author informs us that the clear annual income of the apostolical chamber, which constitutes all the pope's revenues, may be estimated at about three millions two hundred thousand

Roman crowns, equivalent to about seven hundred forty-four thousand one hundred and eighty-six pounds sterling. This income arises from the following articles, viz. the farming of lands belonging to the chamber; the farming of certain taxes paid by the respective communities or parishes in the state, the farming of the duties on wines and brandies, the tax upon all butchers meat consumed in Rome, the tax upon all wheat brought into Rome, the duties upon all foreign goods imported, and a lottery.

Experience evinces, that all farming of taxes is oppressive to the subject as well as detrimental to the public treasury. In the pope's state it has been estimated, that not above two thirds of the sums really paid by the subjects, ever get clear into the pope's coffers, though perhaps this calculation is much too favourable for the revenue.

The mode of conducting the first of the above mentioned articles is extremely pernicious, as will appear from the following account.

'The farmers generally let the lands in small lots to indigent people, reserving to themselves a certain rent to be paid in kind, about a sixth part of the probable produce. They lend them the seed corn, often of bad quality, which must be repaid after reaping: but as the under-tenants have seldom a stock of cattle of their own, this is also usually supplied by the farmer, who exacts for the loan about an English quarter of wheat for every ox yearly, and so in proportion for other cattle. And though these rents and proportions vary in different provinces, yet upon the whole this may be esteemed the medium. Hence it follows, that if the harvest proves scanty, which is often the case, the poor under-tenant is totally ruined. The article of grazing is generally reserved to the farmer alone, who keeps to himself large tracts of pasture land for that purpose.'

All the articles are liable to the exception of increasing the burden to the community; but the taxes on butchers meat, and on wheat, are intolerably burdensome to the public in general, and to the poor in particular. The tax on the former of these articles amounts to one-third of its value; and on the latter, to nine shillings and six pence sterling for every quarter of eight bushels; or fourteen pence farthing per bushel. The duties on foreign commodities imported into Rome, amounts to twenty-nine per cent. on all drugs, spices, sugars, coffee, and tea; and to nineteen and a half per cent. on all other commodities. The latter is doubtless imposed injudiciously, as it admits of no discrimination between articles of luxury and those of necessary use.

The scheme of the papal lottery is of a peculiar kind. The numbers are ninety in the whole, which are put into an urn, and

and five only drawn. These five numbers determine the lot of all the adventurers, who are admitted to game for any sum they please, as low as a single bajoc, which is about the value of a halfpenny. But they must pay in proportion to the quantity of numbers, and the sum they wish to get, which are specified in the respective tickets. Though this lottery is beyond all others disadvantageous to the adventurers, it is incredible with what eagerness it is resorted to by all ranks of people.

Notwithstanding the immense revenues enjoyed by the popes before the Reformation, they were not behind the other potentates of Europe in borrowing money upon the credit of the revenue. This practice was begun by pope Clement VII. about the year 1527, when he instituted public funds, called in Rome *luoghi di monte*, dividing the sums lent him into actions, or lots, of one hundred crowns each. Sixtus V. instituted an easy and certain plan for paying the whole debt, in a manner which our author explains with great perspicuity; but instead of being discharged, the debts, which at that time did not exceed twenty millions, were increased to fifty at the accession of the present pope; equal to about eleven millions six hundred twenty-seven thousand nine hundred pounds sterling. The interest, however, has been gradually lowered to three per cent. so that from the pope's revenues already specified, a million and a half must be deducted for interest, which reduces his clear yearly income to one million seven hundred thousand crowns; or three hundred ninety-five thousand three hundred forty-nine pounds sterling. His necessary expences, however, are very great; and as some must always be allowed for new buildings, and other public works, of which every pope chooses to leave some memorial, the annual disbursements generally exceed the income, at least three hundred thousand crowns, which must of course increase the public debt in the same proportion.

But there is an additional object of great importance in the papal finances, which forms as real a debt as any other whatever, though not burdened with interest. This is the immense sum continually circulating in bank bills, called in Rome *cedole*, which, for want of cash, pass current in all payments in every part of the state.

The limits of a Review will not permit us to give a particular detail of the political administration of this country, which our author describes with great precision; but the following abstract will afford a general idea of the incompetency of the pope's government for the distribution of justice, so essential to the welfare of every state.

' One remarkable circumstance distinguishes the ministers of this country from those of any other nation ; for though their offices imply nothing more than political or œconomical management, yet they are all magistrates and judges, armed with authority to hear and determine all matters that happen within their respective jurisdiction. For this purpose, every one has his tribunal, and keeps an auditor, whose business is to hear the parties contending, read their pleadings, and report the whole in a summary, which he draws up for the information of his principal. Sometimes the prelate himself hears the matter disputed by the lawyers, which is called the Audience of Information, and is generally attended with violent gesticulation, much noise, and little decorum.

But their juridical authority is not limited to causes arising between private individuals, subject, in certain matters, to their particular jurisdiction. The more extraordinary point is, that they are judges also of their own proceedings; insomuch that if, in the exercise of their ministerial authority, they should exceed the bounds of justice, to the oppression or hardship of any individual, there is no immediate remedy, but by instituting a law-suit against the name of the tribunal over which the minister presides, and he himself, who has been the cause of the grievance, is the sole judge to determine whether he has done right or wrong.

' This is what they call their *giurisdizione privata*, or exclusive jurisdiction. It must be owing to some extraordinary inspiration if the judge ever determines against his own proceedings; yet there is no remedy but waiting his decision with patience, sometimes a year, or two, and then appealing to another tribunal, whereof the same judge is always a component member, and all his colleagues just in the same situation with himself, that is, ministers and judges in their respective departments.'

Among the numerous grievances felt by the inhabitants of the papal territories, that which arises from the curates of the respective parishes in Rome, is none of the least conspicuous. These men, eighty-two in number, are immediately subject to the cardinal-vicar, and are obliged, at least once a week, to report to him the behaviour of their parishioners with respect to religion and morals. Their reports have so much weight, that no other enquiry is thought necessary; so that it is a dangerous circumstance to be upon indifferent terms with the curate, who can easily ruin any person or family he pleases. They are generally men of low extraction, little or no learning, sometimes vicious, and often malignant.

Nothing can afford a stronger proof of the weak policy of the papal government than the tyrannical laws of the Annona, which have reduced the state of agriculture to so low an ebb,
that

that the people are often in danger of starving for want of a sufficient quantity of corn.

‘The first and great pervading law of this abominable institution (says our author) is, that no corn whatever can be exported, but by the præfect of the Annona, or by his leave; nor can it even be removed from one parish to another without his consent, unless it be to convey it to Rome. If any corn be found transporting from one parish to another, in any road that does not lead directly to Rome, it may be seized as contraband, and confiscated to the use of the Annona. Neither is it lawful to sell corn to an individual, whenever the præfect pleases to order the proprietor to keep it at his disposal.

‘Immediately after the harvest be got in, every proprietor of corn is obliged to deliver in to the Annona, an exact account upon oath of the quantity he possesses, and where it is deposited. If any part of it be concealed, or transported elsewhere, it is confiscated. In short, the præfect is absolute master of all the corn produced in that extensive part of the state subject to his jurisdiction.

‘The annual consumption of the city of Rome, is about one hundred and fifty thousand quarters, the major part of which is, from time to time, bought up by the præfect, at whatever prices he pleases; for though he does not expressly oblige the proprietors to sell at his price, yet he does the same thing in effect, by prohibiting them from selling to any other buyer.

‘Sometimes he will tie up their hands in this manner, till the next harvest, without declaring positively whether he will buy it or not, and perhaps at last declaring in the negative. It is true, he does not always prohibit them from selling to others, or order them to keep their corn at his disposal (which is the same thing) but he may do it whenever he pleases.’

The impolicy of this ecclesiastical government is not confined to the discouragement of agriculture, but extends, as if studiously devised with the worst design, to the suppression likewise of all commercial industry. Not only corn and pulse of all kinds are prohibited from exportation, but every other product of the country, except wool. Every article not included in the arbitrary jurisdiction of the Annona and Grascia, lies at the mercy of the cardinal-chamberlain, without whose licence nothing can be exported. It is exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to obtain such licence; and even if it should be granted on any particular petition, so long a time is taken up in the application, that the opportunity and season for exportation are generally lost.

This treatise concludes with an attempt to account for the peculiar infelicity of the papal government upon the principle of ecclesiastical apathy. The author observes, that the Roman catholic clergy being prohibited from marrying, and be-
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ing likewise a separate body, have interests distinct from the rest of society, and are less influenced than other men by the tender and sympathetic affections. They degenerate, therefore, into selfishness, and forget all care of others, and of posterity. Whether this supposition fully solves the phenomena, we shall not at present enquire; but it is certain that the author has delineated the genius of the papal government with great exactness and perspicuity. The account he gives of this subject is the most explicit and satisfactory we have hitherto seen; and it is interspersed with such judicious reflections, as not only render his information more interesting, but impress us with a favourable opinion of his political discernment.

Vacunalia: consisting of Essays in Verse, on various Subjects, with some Translations. By the rev. Edward Davies. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Robinsons.

THE first poem in this Collection is entitled an 'Ode to the Muse,' and opens in the following manner.

Pale Avarice—pain'd with endless thirst!
 And all thy train by furies nurs'd—
 Grim Discord, with her double tongue;
 Mad Guilt, with bosom-vipers stung;
 Envy, fell fiend, that squints awry;
 And wakeful Care, with hollow eye!
 Hence—from my peacerul walks!—remain,
 In some devoted traitor's brain;
 Or, when th' incestuous wretch you find,
 Fill with golden dreams his mind,
 While pirates, from the neighbouring shore,
 Rife all his hoarded store.
 Not torture of the barbed dart,
 Nor poison rankling at the heart,
 Not crags that burn with sulphur dire,
 Not whirlwinds of tempestuous fire,
 Not floods of torrent lead, that sweep
 The damn'd to boiling eddies deep,
 Can set a keener edge on pain
 Than disappointed lust of gain:
 The sullen hopes of conscious minds,
 And what repenting Vengeance finds.

The author here 'seems to apprehend a world of figures'; but we can trace no peculiar resemblance in this Ode to the poetical compositions of the sixteenth century, in 'the taste' of which it is said to have been written. Some of the allegorical persons may, indeed, have their prototypes in Spencer or Milton, but they may likewise be traced in the compositions of a long series of succeeding poets down to the present time. An ode can scarcely exist without some of the family being introduced in it. These,
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in the opening lines, are sketch'd with strength and spirit; some other parts of our quotation, particularly the two last lines, will not impress the reader with any very favourable ideas of Mr. Davies' clearness and perspicuity. Yet soon after we meet with others, though not quite unexceptionable, extremely pleasing and picturesque.

' Gay-dimpling o'er the spangled streams,
While zephyr plays with Pæan's beams,
Divine companion! lovely Muse!
Come, and thy balmy sweets infuse!
Fair Leisure's child! serene delight!
O come, and bless my longing sight!
Come, sweeter than the breath of morn,
Gliding o'er the hay or corn;
Fairer than the solar ray,
Expanding on the virgin day!
Let gentle smiles adorn thy cheek,
Like sober evening, calm and meek;
And fold thy robe of charming green,
Such as in yonder field is seen.
Thy tresses bound with lovely blue,
Dipt in Hesper's freshest hue.

And bring the choral virgin band;
Let sportive Fancy near thee stand,
Deck'd in her luxuriant pride;
Sedately thoughtful by her side,
Let solemn Meditation move,
And Pity—melting into love,
With the firm bosom's mutual trust,
And Conscience, spite of interest, just;
Young Mirth—in thousand liveries dight,
And Innocence in snowy white.

The principal poems, exclusive of that mentioned above, are, an Irregular Ode to Resignation. Owen, a mock heroic poem. The Jail, another of the same cast. A translation of Fenelon's beautiful Ode to Solitude; and a version of the first book of Ossian's Temora. In the preface to it, Mr. Davies expresses a wish that the same author who had so ably translated Fingal, would undertake the other works of the Celtic Homer; and he supposes that the *measured prose* into which they are now rendered, is the cause why so many readers dislike them: we rather consider it as a principal reason why they are so much admired. It unites simplicity and loftiness in so peculiar a manner, so forcibly strikes the feeling mind, that, like the sacred writings, it seems incapable of receiving any additional embellishment from the harmony of numbers. We agree with Mr. Davies, that the imitators of Ossian's style have been remarkably unsuccessful; which alone is no weak argument in favour of its intrinsic excellency. His preface to this translation contains many sensible observations, the translation however possesses but little poetical merit.

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Memoires d'Agriculture D'Oeconomie rural & domestique, publiées par la Société Royale d'Agriculture de Paris. Trimestre d'Eté 1786—Trimestre d'Hyver 1787. 8vo. Paris. 2 Vols.

WE are sorry that we have been prevented from resuming these important works, from the irregularity in which we have received them; but we shall exert our best endeavours to supply the defects. The former numbers occurred in our LXIVth volume, p. 466.

It has been suspected, though we think without reason, that the ley with which wheat or other grain is impregnated to prevent the rust, may have been sometimes injurious to the health. In the first number we, therefore, find an arret to prevent the employment of orpiment, arsenic, cobalt, or verdigris in this manner. It was found also, that the scarcity of fodder and the dearness of corn, drove the farmers to employ substances not usually supposed to be adapted to that purpose. The abbé Brelogue gave the society an account of his employing cuttings of the vine as fodder, after they had been dried and were fit to burn. They are moistened, bruised, or ground, and then given to the cattle and to horses. M. D'Ussieux reported to the society his process of cultivation at Brie: he was persuaded of the utility of cultivating lucerne in a field which was not left to fallow, and destined to support numerous herds, and found it to succeed. The abbé Diquemare communicated a memoir, in which he speaks of the utility of manuring, not only with sea-shells, but with the sea-plants and the animals themselves. M. Parmentier has enquired, in a series of experiments into the different methods employed by the Indians of preparing fermented liquors from maize; he found that he could procure excellent beer from it. More water was required in the vat, it softened with greater difficulty than barley, and required more time in the process of malting. Our author suspects that beer of this kind is better adapted to exportation, and more wholesome, since he thinks it more aperient and antiscorbutic. The beer exported from France usually comes from Holland. M. Tassart's experience affords us many receipts against the rust in corn, which is undoubtedly infectious: the chief remedy is lime-water. M. Villars produced a specimen of silk furnished by worms kept in Paris, and the places adjacent, together with some leaves of the black and white mulberry-tree: he greatly prefers the black. These specimens were more equable and perfect than the best Chinese silk. An account was received from M. Collingnon, from St. Catherine's, near the Brazils. He is gardener in M. de la Peyrouse's ship, and gives a pretty favourable account of the fruit-trees carried out in that voyage to enrich distant colonies, and particularly the Isle of France. Mess. Tillet and Desmarets give an account

of the manner in which the rust is propagated, and the means of preventing it.

FOREIGN

of the instrument submitted to their examination, called the *tarare*, to clean wheat, particularly to separate it from the carious part. The instrument was invented by the *sieur Perrin*, and has obtained their approbation. *M. le Breton* has given a report of corn three times reaped, which was again in ear. *M. Forgeroux de Bondaroy* communicated a case of the bite of a viper, cured by the internal and external use of volatile alkali, a method which would probably have been ineffectual, if the viper had been of the poisonous kind. *M. Parmentier* furnished some observations on the smut of maize, which arises from a fleshy tumor on the stalks or leaves: it is not very injurious, and seems to be produced by an excess of sap. The Intendant communicated a method of clearing wheat from the dust of its caries. *M. de Ribaucourt* suggested a method burning bituminous moss, so as to be useful as a manure: the plan seems to be approved of by *Mess. Fourcroy, Parmentier, and Cadet de Vaux*.

The first memoir in this volume is written by *M. Cère*, communicated by the duke de Rochefoucaud, on the culture of rice in the Isle of France. After mentioning the different kinds of corn cultivated in that island, he considers rice an object of no little importance, since it is comparatively more nutritious than wheat. It answers very well in the Isle of France, which is rainy and marshy; it particularly loves a light, strong, fresh soil; the defects in the ground may be remedied by manure, but the best manure is rain water. The thermometer in the shade near the sea in that island, is usually at about 26 degrees (90 of Fahrenheit). In the sun about 40° (125°), at Port Louis it rises in the shade to 28° (95°), and never sinks below 12° (59°).

The report of the commissioners appointed to examine *M. Tillet's* experiments on the means of preventing the caries of wheat, is very favourable to his method. The grain is washed till it leaves the water clear, and is then immersed into a lixivium of caustic alkali.

M. Dantic's memoir on the caterpillar which destroyed the vines in Argenteuil in 1786, is very curious: it is the genus *pyralis* of Fabricius, the *tortrix* of Linnæus, and is a new species.

The memoir on the means of augmenting, in a given space, the number of trees and the production of leaves and fruit, by *M. Daubenton*, is very important. It is not easy to abridge his method; but it consists in assorting the trees, so that the dwarfs which will not rise to the ramifications of those next in height, shall be placed very near to them, and the trees of a mean height near to those of a higher trunk. The leaves, which in France, are often used as fodder, will not, in this way, impede each other's growth.

The president de la Tour d'Aigues has inserted an essay on the decoy of birds of passage, a diversion in Provence. There

are some curious observations in natural history in this memoir ; one particular we shall mention : a falcon of the king of France was let loose at a woodcock in Paris, they flew to Malta, and were both found dead there within twenty-four hours. The tefe, a provincial word found in no dictionary, pretty nearly answers, from the description and plates, to our decoy, only that it is not connected with water.

The next memoir is by M. le Blond, on the method of sowing and preserving maize in South America : this seems to be a very convenient method, and very practicable in the warmer parts of Europe, where it is chiefly wanted ; but we cannot abridge it.

M. Fougereux de Bondaroy's observations on cypresses, and the advantages of cultivating them, follow M. le Blond's memoir. Cypress is a wood very hard and almost incorruptible : at least it perishes very slowly in air or water. It is supposed to prevent, or drive away bugs, if beds are made of it ; but its smell is so strong, that it will probably drive away sleep also. We are sorry that our limits will not permit us to give a longer account of this article, which contains a complete natural history of the cypress, and much classical erudition. We must not, however, omit observing, that it is found to furnish some useful dyes.

M. Hadancourt's memoir is on rearing heifers. This is a subject of great importance in perfecting the different kinds of bullocks ; and among other circumstances, the author with great propriety points out the necessity of attending to their native places, that they may be suited with a proper soil.

The quinoa is an alimentary plant, indigenous in the temperate parts of South America, and was the chief farinaceous subsistence of the inhabitants, before corn was introduced. M. le Blond describes its cultivation and its use. It is of the family of the atriplex, and the genus chenopodium : it has never yet vegetated in Europe. There is a white and a red kind, but the former is preferred : the colours are those of the seeds.

The baron de Courset's meteorological observations for July, August, and September, with Mess. Thouin and Bruffonet's observations, made in the different cantons of the generality of Paris, during the same months, conclude this volume. Each article is incapable of abridgment.

The number for the winter of 1787, comprehending January, February, and March, commences with a list of new corresponding members. M. Parmentier, in January, communicated a letter from M. Hell, in which he describes the method employed in Alsatia of fattening cattle with the husks, or, what is called in cyder countries, the mock of raisins. It is mixed with chopped reed, turnips, carrots, and potatoes. M. Thouin describes the method of cultivating violets ; particularly the double ones, which produce no seed, and of increasing them by suckers. He points out, not only the advantages derived from

from the sale of ornamental flowers, but of various preparations made from them, in which they are esteemed as valuable as orange flowers. M. de Rouville has communicated his observations on the mode of culture, in the neighbourhood of Malherbes, which he has found to be useful, without allowing of fallows. It is described more at length than is usual in the history of a foreign society. M. Thouin has reported many observations on the *cupressus foliis acaciæ*, on the *iglans oliveformis*, and the *diospyros Virginiana* of Linnæus: the two last are found in Louisiana. The first chiefly in marshy and inundated grounds, from the Mississippi: like the other cypresses, it is almost incorruptible. The *iglans* is a kind of nut-tree, and loves dry rather than swampy places. Its nuts are delicious, and its wood is very flexible. The *diospyros* is the medlar of Louisiana, but the fruit when ripe is of a deepish orange-colour: with meal, a medicine for the flux is prepared from it. The best situation for it, is the gloomy moist ground of thick forests: it is a corruptible wood, though firm at first, and used only on urgent temporary occasions. The abbé Commerill having been much engaged in simplifying the culture of the red beet, communicated to the society the means he employed to diminish the expence of labour. M. le Breton has given an account of an observation by no means singular, though styled so: viz. ears of corn of different degrees of maturity in the same field. This arises when the vegetation is checked after the growth of the most vigorous seeds, by a long drought, which is succeeded by rain, for the rain brings up the weaker seeds. In this instance there were more than two crops. The English farmers find no great inconvenience, if the harvest is not catching. They wait till the earliest ears are fully ripe, and suffer the corn to remain long on the ground. In the present harvest we have seen many instances of this kind. M. Dorthes informs the Society that the *clematitis flammula*, though an escharotic when fresh, is a wholesome and agreeable fodder when dried. He gives some directions for propagating a plant which many farmers wish to destroy. M. le Breton presented some specimens of paper manufactured from the bark of the paper mulberry-tree of China, (*morus papyrifera* Lin.) It was made from the young shoots of the tree which grows in the garden of marshal de Noailles: the workmen speak of it with much applause.

These are the observations in the historical part of this trimestre; we next proceed to the memoirs. The first is a description of a furnace, in which bricks, tiles, and other pottery may be burnt with great œconomy, by the president de la Tour d'Aigues. The great object of this furnace is to procure incombustible floors.

M. Fougeroux de Blavau next adds observations on a method which may be employed to drain an inundated country. This method was suggested by seeing water fall into a well, and finding some internal passage, since the well was not filled. He

thinks this plan with proper attention would be often successful, but it would not be so generally useful as he suspects.

The author of the next memoir, M. Fougereux de Bondaroy, in his comparison of the profit of the March grains, oats, and barley, gives the preference to oats, since the product is more considerable, and it does not impoverish the ground so much. Where manure is plenty and cheap, barley may be preferable.

The first memoir on the analysis of geoponic earths, by Mess. de Fourcroy and Hassenfratz is very important. A pound of the first stratum which they examined, gave 2 drams 2 grains of dung not decomposed, 1 dram 6 grains of flinty earth, 18 grains of selenite, $9\frac{1}{2}$ grains of fixed air, 2 ounces 2 drams 40 grains of thick oil, 5 ounces 5 drams 28 grains of water, oil and probably volatile alkali, 18.16 grains of coaly matter in fixed air, 54.28 grains of decomposed water, 2 drams 17 grains of coaly inflammable air, 3 ounces of coal consumed by the roasting, 1 dram 14 grains of clay, 58 grains of calcareous earth, 70 grains of calx of iron and manganese mixed, 2 grains of calx of manganese, 3 ounces 6 drams 19 grains of flinty fragments, 4.06 grains lost without notice.

The essay on the culture of the larch-tree, in the northern provinces of France, by M. Tour D'Aigues is very useful. The wood is hard, equally durable, and less heavy than the oak; it bears the damp well, and as its fibres are strait, has no tendency to bend; it is very useful also for casks. Our author gives the best methods of raising and managing this apparently advantageous tree.

The obstacles to folding sheep, which the marquis de Guerchy endeavours to obviate, are chiefly connected with the customs and government of France.

The disease of cattle which M. Chabert describes, is called the *maladie de bois*, the disease of the woods, as it chiefly occurs in forests, and particularly in those where the trees prevent the growth of plants by their thick foliage. The cause seems to be the great astringency of some of the young shoots, which the cattle, particularly bullocks, horses, and deer, eat from the want of other foods; for this disease more frequently occurs in forests of oaks than of other trees. The effects are undoubtedly a want of moisture, and in some respects those of scurvy arising from substances not alimentary. For the symptoms and cure, we must refer to the work, which gives in general a very correct and judicious account of both.

The memoir on madder, by M. Fougereux de Bondaroy, contains some account of the different species of *rubia*, indigenous in France, with the plants most nearly connected to it, in a natural order. He wishes to point out some proper substitute for the foreign madder, which may be procured in his own country; but nothing is yet ascertained.

The marquis de Turgot offers some remarks on those orange-trees called *hermaphrodites*, which produces fruit resembling
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in part an orange and in part a lemon. It is produced by the union of grafts, but the peculiarity is lost by age. The marquis suggests some experiments to explain this singularity more perfectly.

The president de la Tour d'Aigues describes the Florence silk-worm which spins three times in one year; it is called *bacco di Trevolti*. The worm and the cones are small; three are equal to two of the larger common worms.

The seeds of the great sun-flower, says M. Crattè de Pelluel, are alimentary to men and cattle, and afford oil: the stalks will support beans, the leaves fatten and increase the milk of cows. The young tops are useful as food, and the leaves as dye-stuff. Above all, this plant may be increased very fast.

M. Fougeroux de Bondaroy next describes the frame proper for raising the plants from hot countries; but this description we cannot abridge. In the following memoir the president de la Tour d'Aigues recommends the cultivation of the caper-plant, which is originally from Asia, and points out the best method of succeeding: shade and cold are only to be avoided. The marquis de Gouffier's memoir on the hyacinth follows; but this we have noticed in our Foreign Intelligence.

M. de la Bergerie de Blenau, who finds great advantages in the culture of trefoil, has been deterred from it only by its requiring so long drying. He has since dried it in the barn, laid on different strata of wood and straw, to admit of free passage of air with advantage.

The next memoir by the abbé le Febure, is on the management and utility of the burnet. It is in a great measure taken from the English authors, and to abridge it would convey little novelty to our English agriculturists, who would wish only to detract somewhat from the high encomiums bestowed on it.

The president de la Tour d'Aigues has communicated a memoir on the oxen of Camargue, a district depending on Provence, full of lakes, where the cattle are excellent; but this depends only on circumstances, for when, some years since, the breed was destroyed and replaced from Auvergne, they were found to possess the same properties. They are a violent and a furious race, and the different methods of managing them almost surpass our belief, if they were not well authenticated. When tamed in part, for they are seldom entirely tamed, they are very serviceable.

M. Daubenton's observations on the great tree of Chili (*pinus basilaris*) are very curious. The description of the structure, which is singular, cannot be properly understood without the plates. It produces a semi-transparent resin, which burns with a greyish smoke, and gives out the smell of frankincense. The wood makes good masts for ships.

The meteorological observations for the winter months, January, February, and March, made in Lower Poitou, by M. Gallot, and in the Bolonnois by the baron de Courset, conclude the volume,

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued, from p. 154.)

THE silence which has prevailed on the continent respecting the count de Buffon, is remarkable. 'The learned world, says a late author, is struck with astonishment: it can hardly believe the loss real, and requires some repose before it can undertake the task of praise.' This is a little too strong language to be used on the death of a man whose age almost reached 81. We shall collect, however, a few of the most important anecdotes of his life; they will not delay us long, and we cannot give a better introduction to the novelties of natural history, which we purpose to relate.

Georges Louis le Clerc, count de Buffon, was born at Montbard, in Burgundy, the 7th of September, 1707: his father was a counsellor of the parliament of Dijon, and the son was destined to the same office, if science had not drawn him away from the law. He studied at Dijon; and his eager activity, his acuteness, penetration, and robust constitution, fitted him to pursue business and pleasure with equal ardour. His early passion was for astronomy, and the young Le Clerc was never without Euclid in his pocket. At the age of twenty, he went with an English nobleman and his governor to Italy; but he overlooked the choicest remains of art, and, amidst the ruins of an elegant and luxurious people, he first felt the charms of natural history, whose zealous and successful admirer he afterwards proved. On his return to France, he fought, on some occasional quarrel, with an Englishman, whom he wounded, and was obliged to retire to Paris. He there translated Newton's Fluxions, from the Latin, and Hales' Statics from the English, into the French language. He afterwards came to England, at the age of twenty-five; and this journey concluded his travels: he staid here about three months. At the age of twenty-one, he succeeded to the estate of his mother, which was valued at about 300,000 livres (above 12000 pounds sterling); and he was one of those whose easy or affluent circumstances urge on literary pursuits, and clear the path of some of its thorns. Perhaps this was the period of his retirement to Montbard, where he spent much time, and where his leisure was little interrupted: while in the capital, his office of intendant of the king's garden and cabinet, engaged much of his time. He loved company, and was partial to the fair; but he loved glory more. He spent fourteen hours every day in study; and, when we examine the extent of his knowledge, and the number of his works, we wonder at his having executed so much, even in this time. At five in the morning he retired to a pavilion in his vast gardens, and he was then inaccessible. This was, as prince Henry of Prussia called it, the cradle of natural history; but

but she was indifferently accommodated. The walls were naked, an old writing-table, with pen, ink, and paper, and an elbow chair of black leather, were the only furniture of his study. His manuscripts were in a cabinet in another building, and he went occasionally from one to the other. The æras of Buffon's works are pretty well known. When each was finished, it was put aside, in order that he might forget it, and he then returned to it with the severity of a critic. He was anxious to have it perspicuous; and if those to whom he read his works, hesitated a moment, he changed the passage. The works of others he, at last, read like Magliabechi, the titles, the contents, and the most interesting parts; but he read M. Neckar's *Compte Rendu*, and the *Administration of the Finances*, at length: he spoke of them also with no little enthusiasm. His favourite authors were Fenelon, Montesquieu, and Richardson.

M. de Buffon's conversation was unadorned, rarely animated, but sometimes very cheerful. He was exact in his dress, particularly in dressing his hair. He sat long at table, and then seemed at his ease. His conversation was, at this time, unembarrassed, and his guests had frequently occasion to notice some happy turn of phrase, or some deep reflection. His complaisance was very considerable: he loved praise, and even praised himself, but it was with so much frankness, and with so little contempt of others, that it was never disagreeable. Indeed, when we consider the extent of his reputation, the credit of his works, and the attention with which they were always received, we do not wonder that he was sensible of his own value. It would perhaps have displayed a stronger mind to have concealed it. His father lived to 93, and almost adored his son; his grandfather to 87, and the subject of our present observations exceeded only 80. Fifty-six stones were found in his bladder; but if he had consented to the operation, he might probably have lived longer. One son remains. Near a high tower, in the gardens of Montbard, he has placed a low column, with the following inscription:

Excelsæ Turri
Humilis Columna,
Parenti suo
Fil. Buffon.

Le Comte de la Cépède, in his description of the four lamps, suspended in the temple of Genius, erected in the bosom of France, has given a pompous eulogy of Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau, and Buffon. We shall conclude this subject by translating the last.—‘It was no longer night: a star, created by nature to illuminate the universe, shone with majesty. His course was marked by dignity; his motion by harmony, and his repose by serenity: every eye, even the weakest, was eager to contemplate it. From his car resplendent over the universe, he spread his magnificence. As God inclosed in the ark all the works of creation, he collected on the banks of the Seine

the animals, vegetables, and minerals, dispersed in the four quarters of the globe. Every form, every colour, all the riches and instincts of the world were offered to our eyes, and to our understandings. Every thing was revealed; every thing enobled; every thing rendered interesting, brilliant, or graceful. But a funeral groan was heard—nature grieved in silence:—with Buffon the last lamp was extinguished.

Yet M. Cèpede is not always a declamatory panegyrist: he has lately published the first volume of oviparous quadrupeds and serpents, of which the commissioners, appointed by the Royal Academy at Paris to examine it, have made a very respectful report. 'The count,' say they, 'has pointed out near twenty species of oviparous animals, which have not been before mentioned, or at least have not been classed, or compared with attention. In the whole, he has described one hundred and thirteen species of oviparous quadrupeds. There is a clearness and a precision, they say, in the descriptions; the different characters are well contrasted; the historical part is detailed with judgment; and the author has taken great care to render his style agreeable, that he might give some attraction to tiresome and disgusting descriptions.' 'The name of oviparous distinguishes,' says our author, 'this class; but they have also no mammæ, like the viviparous; and, instead of being covered with hair, are enclosed in a scaly crust, a hard shell, sharp scales, tubercles of different sizes, or naked skin covered with a viscid fluid. Instead of extending their limbs, they fold them up, and put them out so cautiously, as scarcely to raise themselves from the ground, on which they seem rather to creep than to walk.' They are divided into animals with a tail, and without. The first class contains the tortoises, which are covered with a shell; and the lizards, which have no covering. The tortoises are divided, 1st, into those which have the toes of unequal length, and extended in the form of fins: this order contains six species. 2dly, Into such as have the toes very short and almost equal: of this kind there are eighteen species. The lizards have, 1st, the tail flattened, with five toes on each fore-foot. This division contains the crocodiles, of which there are two new species, and some other lizards, in the whole eleven species. The second division have a round tail, five toes on each foot, and the scales elevated on the back, in the form of a crest: five species. Those of the third have a round tail five toes on the fore-feet, and scaly bands under the belly: seven species. The fourth are like the third; but without the bands: twenty-one species. In the fifth division, the toes are covered with scales, like the tiles on a house: three species. There are but two species in the next division, and these have only three toes on the fore and hind-feet. In the seventh there is only one species, the draco volans: it is distinguished by membranes in the form of wings. The six species of the eighth division have three or four toes on the fore-feet, and four or five on the hind ones.

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The second class of oviparous quadrupeds are those which have no tails: these are the frogs and the toads. The frogs are divided into two genera: the first have a long head and body, with the one or the other angular: the second is distinguished by their having viscid cushions under the toes. This class contains thirty-three species. There are two divisions of biped reptiles, but each contains a single species only: the first comes from Mexico, and greatly resembles the chalcide. It has two feet before, half rings on the body and belly, and entire rings on the tail, which is very short. The only species of the second division, M. Pallas found on the Wolga. It is called the *sheltopufik*: it has two feet behind, very near the anus; a longitudinal thread on each side of the body; the foramina for hearing, very large; the tail at least as long as the body.

The volume which contains the serpents, we have not yet seen; but, in the mean time, we have received accounts of a new species of serpent, from the island of Java. The description, by M. Hornstedt, was read to the Royal Academy of Stockholm. This animal was discovered in 1784, in a vast forest of pepper-trees, caught by a Chinese, who carried it in a cleft stick to Batavia. The skin was preserved, and the flesh dressed and eat by the Chinese, who esteem it excellent meat. The belly was large, and contained four young ones, for the serpent was a female. It had neither the scuta and squamæ under the belly and tail, nor the annuli and rugæ. The skin was covered with rough unequal tubercles; so that it makes a new genus, which our author has called *acrochordus*, with the trivial name of *Javanicus*. The colour on the back was black; under the belly white; on the sides spotted. The length of the body was about seven feet four inches, English; of the tail eleven inches.

Of the insects we have many additional species. It is with great pleasure that we announce the mantissa of Fabricius, which contains the discoveries made since 1781, when his species of insects appeared. It was published the latter end of last year at Copenhagen, and contains a thousand new species, though there is reason to suspect that he has not inserted all the discoveries of Pallas and Thunberg. Of the genus *scarabæus* there were one hundred and twenty-four species in the *Systema Entomologiæ*; in 1781 there were one hundred and fifty-eight, and now one hundred and eighty. The species of *trox* from three and four are now six. The *melolonthæ* are at present eighty-nine: the *trichii*, thirteen: the *cetonix*, sixty-nine: the *buprestes*, ninety-one, &c. This mantissa, we perceive, relates only to the first volume of the *Species Insectorum*.

To facilitate the study of entomology, we find a very useful assistant published in Germany, in the German language, *Nomenclator Entomologicus*. It is in small quarto, and consists of a systematic catalogue of all the insects known at present, with a complete list of synonyms. The author, to whom we

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are indebted for a description of the papillons of Europe, has subjoined some discoveries of his own.

The memoir on the parts of the mouth of insects, read by Dr. Olivier to the Royal Academy at Paris, is the most important work on these subjects. From the ruminating to the carnivorous animal; from the eagle to the sparrow; from the serpent to the tortoise; from the ray to the sole; from the whale to the dolphin; from the shell-fish to the molusca, there is not so great a difference as between the mouths of a butterfly and a beetle, a fly and a crab, a bug and an emmet, a bee and a spider. The mouths of insects, so important to their habits and manners of life, will probably contribute greatly to elucidate their œconomy. The long soft, flexible trunk of the butterfly, for instance, is only proper to extract the juices from flowers; the slightest membrane could not be penetrated by it. The mouth of the bug, on the contrary, composed of many fine, delicate, but solid parts, can pierce the substance of plants, or the skin of animals. The large, strong jaws of the spider, armed with a firm and very sharp sting, are proper to seize and kill flies. The mouths of the louse and flea are armed with a dart of extreme minuteness, which is easily insinuated into the flesh of animals; and, at the same time, in consequence of its being perforated, acts as a sucker. Independent of his sting, the wasp is armed with jaws, with which it divides the flowers, whose juices he sucks. It employs them also to divide and carry away the substances of which it builds its nest. Long, strong, dentated, pointed, and acute jaws, point out the coleoptera, which live by rapine, and are in a continual state of war with others. Large thick jaws, terminated by a sharp edge, point out insects which eat through wood, and other hard bodies. Those which feed on leaves, have jaws less strong, and their edge more blunt. It is well known, that the system of Fabricius depends on the parts of the mouth; but it is yet imperfect and incorrect. Our present author will contribute to correct its errors, and supply its defects. He divides the mouths of insects into the upper lip (clypeus Fabricii); the under lip (labium F.); the mandibles, or upper jaws, (mandibulæ); the cheek bones (maxillæ); the helmets (galeæ); the feelers (palpi); the tongue (lingua); the beak (rostrum); the sucker (haustellum); the trunk (proboscis). These parts M. Olivier particularly describes: we need only follow him in the description of the helmets, for the popular meanings will give a pretty exact idea of the other parts. The galeæ are small membranous parts placed on the outside of each cheek-bone, in the family of the locusts, and almost entirely covers it. It is on the existence of this part that Fabricius has established his second class, the ulonata. The galeæ are inserted at the back of these bones, between them and the anterior feelers. They differ very little from a similar part in coleoptera, which is divided into two portions, they are only
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a little larger and thinner than in the coleopterae, and seem designed to hide and defend the other parts of the mouth, jointly with the lips. Our author illustrates his description of these different parts with plates, and designs his memoir as an introduction to a system of entomology, which we expect every day, founded on the distinctions drawn from the shape of the mouth; and this he thinks a better foundation for classification than the wings. We have enlarged, for many reasons, on this memoir, rather more than our limits would allow, particularly as it gives some account of the system of Fabricius, which is not much known in England, except among the most intelligent entomologists.

While we are on this subject, we may shortly mention the second volume of the abbé Gili's translation of the System of Nature, with plates, M. Forster's Enchiridion of Natural History, and Krockner's Flora Silesiaca renovata. The first is translated into Italian, and said to be very ably executed: this volume contains the third and fourth class of Linnæus. M. Forster's work is an introductory manual, for the students of the Linnæan system, selected from the most approved authors; and the Flora Silesiaca is local and partial: M. Krockner only describes the plants of the nine first classes of Linnæus, comprehending six hundred and nineteen individuals, of which fifty-three are engraved, and has added the German names with the synonyms, the useful and hurtful qualities of each plant.

There is a pretty extensive dissertation on a hurtful plant, viz. the mandragora, published in the Journal of Natural History, by M. Granier, of the Royal Academy of Nîmes. It is a pretty strong narcotic, and this quality, together with the shape of its roots, have given occasion to many idle stories. Our author hints at them, describes, with sufficient accuracy, the white or the male plant, and the black or the female, with their different virtues. The narcotic power is said to reside chiefly in the bark of the root; but we mention this work as a botanical one, for the medical virtues are collected from other authors. Its prolific virtue has given occasion to commentators to suppose that the dudain, said to have removed the sterility of Rachel, in Genesis, was the mandragora; but, in reality, it was a kind of melon: Calmet thinks it was an orange.

A remarkable experiment has been lately made on the hyacinth, by the marquis de Gouffier. He found that, if the root was reversed in a glass, such as they are put on to blow in rooms, the stem would extend in the water, and the flower appear as perfect as in air. This author has given a long and particular account of the natural history of the hyacinth, with a dissection of the root. The flower multiplies by suckers, but it is varied by seeds. In the curious experiment which we have mentioned, the root was put into the glass in November last: it was of the blue kind called the pasquins. The bulb,
from

from which the roots arise, was out of the water, which did not even reach to its middle. After three weeks, the vegetation came on, and no roots appeared. By degrees, the leaves and the stock appeared; they increased, and the flower flourished, as if it had been in the earth. The end of the stem seemed radiated, and the leaves were a little longer than ordinary; but they were of the usual colour. The blue flowers were a little greenish at the edge, according to custom, and when they were quite faded, they became white, with a tincture of blue scarcely visible. He thought that he perceived, in the centre of the corolla, a violet point. The water was changed about the end of the month, because it had a bad smell, and the flowers began to putrify. In this experiment, the marquis supposes that the flower drew its nourishment from the interstices of the coats. The roots, therefore, appear to be of little use, except to retain the flower in the earth, and perhaps the hyacinth is really an aquatic, though to this opinion there are some objections. It will really putrify in water, if suffered to remain after the flowers are gone. Our author thinks, that the colour appearing in water, opposes the received cause of the colours of plants; but, in a glass there must be light; and it only proves, that light does not lose its chemical qualities by refraction, and passing through water. Many parts of the bulb are undoubtedly not necessary to the plant, and it is probable that the roots do not absorb, for they do not carry a colouring matter into the body of the bulb. Parts of it may be cut off, if the principal roots are not injured, and the bloom is not prevented. The marquis de St. Simon thinks the radical fibres excretory vessels; but from the last experiment, this is not probable. The leaves seem to perform that office. No other bulbous plant will vegetate with the bulb in the water, and the roots in the air. The hyacinth flourishes with particular vigour, in Holland, because, as our author thinks, it is always surrounded with vapour. It fails in France, because, while they give it the soil of Holland, they do not give it the moist air. The sun burns it too much. We purposed, in this botanical arrangement, to have given some account of Pallas's *Flora Rossica*; but we perceive it will carry us too far, and a work of this magnitude and splendour requires a distinct article.

As we rise in the scale of beings, we must mention some curious remarks on a sea anemone, which fell from the abbé Dicquemare's pocket-book. It was thirteen years ago that the abbé saw these animals divide themselves, as it were, to form their successors. He saw this in his fourth species; and, after a long careful attention, he saw it lately in a variety of his second. It was a small animal, and divided itself into four unequal slips, which formed a wound of near one quarter of its original circumference, which is about three inches. Yet this enormous wound healed, and the young ones were, after
some

Some time, sound also, for the middle of these slips swelled, and the ends retracted, till they had assumed a convex form. One of these young ones appeared to have two mouths, and they all seemed to feel, in their limited habitation, those changes of the atmosphere which agitate the sea, for they were often prematurely restless, and in motion. The mother seemed to fix herself on the wounded part. Our author, with a laudable attention, watched the growth of these peculiar animals, and describes it at length. He then endeavours to explain this extraordinary birth, and remarks that, in the more perfect animals, the young is, for a time, a part of the mother, and as it were torn from her. But this analogy is very distant and very incomplete.

There is another extract from the pocket-book of the same author, which is exceedingly curious. It is the description of a white negress. The colour is a deadish white, but the redder parts are of a brighter sanguine colour than usual in those people. Yet her hair, her features, and her walk, point out at once the distinction. The hair is extremely woolly, of a colour a little more red than the wool of sheep. Her voice, however, is not so gentle, her air so timid, or her skin so soft as those of negroes. She has not their smell; is gay, lively, and agreeable. In her terror, her complaints were modulated in a real tune: this is not uncommon in Africa, and may point out an æra of natural music, which a very respectable author thinks might have been always observed in the ruder states of every nation. The abbé thinks that the colour of this girl is the original one, which again by accident appears, after it had been darkened by disease or filth, so as to have tarnished the whole race. This young girl is about twelve years old.

Another peculiar nation, the Patagonians, have occasioned some doubts and difficulties. It is now generally agreed, that in the southern parts of America, there is a race of very tall robust men; but they appear only occasionally on the sea-coast. M. Odman, who has lately published a short essay on this subject, has collected what every author has observed. There is little novelty in his collection, except what relates to the reports of two Frenchmen, Duclos Guyot and Giraudais, who saw them in 1766. They saw them more than once, and they received them with courtesy. They had a few European words and gestures, eat bread freely, though their favourite meats were the fat of animals, and they never would touch wine. They were clothed in horse-skin, and their arms were slings, which they used with great dexterity. Their faces are large, their noses flattened, mouths wide, teeth white, their bodies large and portly. The robes (more properly the blankets) of the smallest Patagonian, put on a Frenchman of five feet seven inches, trained on the ground a foot and a half. This gives seven feet for the height of the smallest.

We may just mention a curious work publishing at Amsterdam, by M. Vofmaer. It is a description of the uncommon animals and remarkable productions in the prince of Orange's menagerie and cabinet. It was begun in 1766, and thirty-one numbers were published. The animals described in these numbers were, the African boar; the small goat of Guinea; the bastard marmot of Africa; the flying squirrel of India; the rattlesnake of Surinam; the American trumpeter; different halcyons of America and the East Indies; the purple-red parrot of America; the sagittary, and bizaam cat of Africa; the slug-gard of Bengal; the whistling monkey of America; the ichneumon of India; the American weakel (potto); two flat tailed serpents, and the ouran-outang of India. The sixteenth number contains descriptions of the timid giraffe and the green shining mole. Our author tells us, that the giraffe is but seven inches higher at the fore-part than on the hinder parts, and its usual height is somewhat above sixteen feet. The mole is an exceedingly beautiful colour, which, in spirits, is a shaded green and gold. When dry, it is brownish, but recovers its colours, on being again wetted with spirits: it is probable, that it is naturally brown.

In the department of the Natural History of Fossils, we meet with nothing very interesting or new. It happened, however, that, in the memoir in defence of count Calioistro, the author spoke of visiting Ægypt, and those immense masses of marble and granite, the Pyramids. A late author, M. Grosse, has noticed this passage: he tells us that, in reality, the stones are calcareous, and contain numerous shells, agglutinated by some concreting matter, which decays by time, and leaves the shells unconnected. Of course, it is a deposition from the sea, and supports the opinion which we gave in our review of Volney's Travels, that Ægypt was once covered by the ocean. We know not whether this fact be new: it was new to us *, and of more importance, as some commentators on the Old Testament had supposed that the children of Israel, when they made bricks without straw, were employed in these vast buildings.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

D I V I N I T Y.

The Universal Restoration: exhibited in a Series of Dialogues, between a Minister and his Friend. By Elbanan Winchester. 8vo. 3s. Scollick.

OUR author, with great candour and extensive knowledge of the subject, discusses the doctrine of eternal punishments. He thinks that there will be a period when every sinner will be 'restored' to the divine favour. This doctrine is perfectly consistent

* Volney speaks of the calcareous nature of the stone, in general only, and Haslequist was more attentive to an ant's nest than to these buildings.

with the benevolence of the deity: it is now supported by many wise and good men; nor is there any reason to suppose that it will be perverted to serve the purposes of vice and immorality. Mr. Winchester, in his defence of it, shows much charity, much humanity, and no little share of learning. The fifth dialogue alone, which relates to the design and tendency of punishment, might furnish some little foundation for a difference in opinion; but, in a question so greatly above human attainment, the mind would be lost in the enquiry, and not greatly benefited by the discussion. The question of the universal restoration must be examined, as Mr. Winchester has done, by the word of God, as revealed at different times, and particularly in the Gospel.

A Letter addressed to the Ministers of the Orthodox; or, Calvinistic Baptists. 8vo. 3d. sewed. Johnson.

Our author addresses the Calvinistic Baptists, for there are many other baptists, who, in some respects, differ from them, on the conduct of their worship. He is particularly offended with their doxologies, which he thinks are not countenanced by apostolic precept or example; a rule which they eagerly require, and usually adhere to. In short, our author is a zealous Unitarian; but he neglects the precept of St. Paul, which we lately considered in Mr. Manning's sermon.—His manner is not conciliatory, and he seems to overlook in his eagerness, what is expedient.

A Scriptural Refutation of a Pamphlet, lately published by the rev. Raymund Harris, intitled, 'Scriptural Researches on the Licitness of the Slave Trade.' 8vo. 1s. sewed. Law.

Our present author is more exact and discriminated in his reply to Mr. Harris, than those who preceded him in the task of refuting the Scriptural Researches. His Refutation is very clear, accurate, and satisfactory: it scarcely leaves any doubt, if a doubt could ever have existed.

An Essay on the Kingdom of Christ. By Abraham Booth. 12mo. 1s. Buckland.

Our Saviour's remark, that his kingdom is not of this world, leads Mr. Booth to enquire in what respects it differs; and, when it is observed, that to our author we are indebted for 'Pædobaptism Examined,' it may be easily seen to what objects Mr. Booth's attention is directed. The kingdom of Christ, or the Gospel church, is not, he observes, a kingdom of this world, if we regard its origin, its subjects, its laws, its external splendour, its immunities, its riches and its honours, its limits and duration, as well as its title, the kingdom of heaven. Under the section of its subjects, Mr. Booth adverts to establishments and subscription; and, while he points out the difference of the kingdom of Christ from the kingdoms of this world, in respect to its splendour, he is naturally led to consider the ornaments

ornaments of churches, and the dress of the clergy. On this subject we shall beg leave to subscribe a very just, and a very candid paragraph.

‘But, however it may be with a national establishment, let not Protestant dissenters behave as if they envied either its magnificence, or its emoluments. No: let not those who consider the church and the world as opposite ideas; who maintain, that Christ only is the head of Christian communities; and that the New Testament contains the whole of their ecclesiastical polity, be desirous of external grandeur in any thing pertaining to public worship: lest they practically deny their own principles, and implicitly reproach primitive Christianity for being too simple and too spiritual. It is frequently much easier for people, and much more desired by them, to assemble in an elegant edifice, and for their minister to appear in canonical fashion, than to perform a spiritual worship, and to shine in the beauties of holiness. The splendor of a place for assembling, and the pageantry of clerical dress, are procured by money; but the graces of real sanctity, and internal devotion, are of heavenly origin: nor is the exercise of them to be expected, unless by those who are habitually aiming at it.—I will add, whatever kind of succession to the apostles may be claimed by diocesan bishops, yet let not Protestant dissenting ministers implicitly arrogate an apostolic mission, powers, and authority, by calling themselves *ambassadors of Christ*. For that character, it is plain, belonged to the first rate messengers of our divine Sovereign. Or, if any of those who publish the gospel of peace consider a title of that high importance as quite suitable to the dignity of their ecclesiastical station, their credentials must be produced.’

On the whole, though we differ from Mr. Booth in some fundamental positions, we can cheerfully praise his liberality, far distant from the bigotry of a sectary; and his piety, which is manly and rational, without a tincture of fanaticism.

A Letter from a Lady to her Daughter, on the Manner of passing Sunday rationally and agreeably. Small 8vo. 1s. Marshall.

This is a supplement to the treatise on the ‘Manners of the Great;’ and as in that work it was shown how Sunday should not, the lady now directs how it should be spent. The advice on this subject is truly rational and religious. Some incidental remarks on collateral circumstances of conduct, are equally just and valuable.

The Sunday-School Catechist; consisting of Familiar Lectures, with Questions for the Use of Visitors and Teachers. By Mrs. Trimmer. 12mo. 2s. Robinsons.

Mrs. Trimmer is indefatigably assiduous in promoting the very useful design of the Sunday-schools. These Lectures, which contain much good and necessary information, in the plainest and most perspicuous style, we can recommend with much confidence and

and pleasure. The questions arising from the Lectures, which form more strictly the catechism, are properly calculated to lead children to reflect on what they have heard.

Specimens of Sermons and Prayers, of a late Divine, for the Use of the Young. By Edward Hall. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

To those who will overlook a rough unpolished outside, we will venture to promise a pleasing repast. The Sermons were not, it seems, written for publication, and many little errors sufficiently prove it; though the author also suffers occasionally for the faults of his printer. Yet, when we have passed over little errors, too level, and perhaps too familiar, language, we shall find a very great degree of ingenuity, a depth of reflection, and a strength of reasoning, which render these Sermons truly valuable. The author we know not; and a publication dropping, without a name, from the press with a forbidding outside, would not, perhaps, add to his general fame. The editor thinks they may do service: we are entirely of the same opinion. From the Prayers, and from one Sermon, we perceive that the author was not of the established clergy; but the sermons are generally on moral subjects. The prayers are too long, and a little too desultory.

A Sermon preached at Burnley, in Lancashire, on the Institution of Sunday Schools there. By Thomas Collins, A. M. 4to. 1s. Robson and Clarke.

This is a very neat and judicious discourse from Romans x. 12. 'How shall they call on him in whom they have not believed? And how shall they believe in him of whom they have not heard?' The preacher points out the advantages, and even the necessity, of searching the Scriptures as the rules of life, and earnestly inculcates the plan of Sunday schools, as a means of extending these advantages. The institutions have our hearty good wishes.

An Inquiry into the best Method of communicating Religious Knowledge to young Men. A Sermon preached at Exeter, before the Assembly of Protestant Dissenting Ministers, May 7, 1788. By Timothy Kenrick. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

While the general attention to Sunday schools provides for the instruction of the younger part of mankind, Mr. Kenrick, with great propriety, examines the situation of young men just embarking, in more active life, in the state of pupils and apprentices. He thinks that the general disregard to religion is partly owing to its principles not being clearly and systematically explained; and this again arises from dismissing the catechumen too early. He proposes, therefore, a system of religious education, adapted to the intermediate state between the child and the man. We greatly approve of his idea, and think that Mr. Kenrick, in this very rational and judicious discourse, displays much good sense and real piety.

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The Design of the Gospel History considered and improved, in a Sermon. Preached at the Chapel in Essex-street, Strand, London, May 11. By Joshua Toulmin, A. M. 8vo 6d. Johnson.

The subject of this plain and judicious discourse is taken from John xx. 31. 'But these are written, that ye might believe that Jesus is the Christ, the Son of God; and, that believing, ye might have life through his name.' Mr. Toulmin points out the apparent design of the evangelists in recording the sayings and the miracles of our Saviour: they seemingly preferred those parts of his life which were most striking, most important, and most useful, to the more numerous, but less instructive passages. Their object was only to show, that Christ Jesus was the Son of God. This is enough, he thinks, for us to believe, and he consequently disapproves of numerous and extensive articles of faith. We can cheerfully go on with Mr. Toulmin almost to the end: but in this part, we must be allowed to think, that his judgment fails. He has shown, that to believe in Christ is the great sum and foundation of Christianity; but his argument cannot, in fairness, be carried farther.

M E D I C A L.

The Human Muscles, classed as they appear in Dissection; together with the Synonyma of the best Authors. By John Crawford. 4to. 2s. Law.

This is a very useful little work; and it will greatly contribute to assist the study of myology. The synonyms are those of Innes, Albinus, Douglas, Winslow, and Cowper; but our author, in his terms, does not greatly differ from Innes.

Observations on the Medical Practice of Dr. Brown. 8vo. 1s. Gardner.

This is an apparently candid and dispassionate attempt to check the enormities of Dr. Brown's system, in the very liberal and indiscriminate use of opiates and stimulants. We cannot compliment the author very highly on his success in putting the practice, in this respect, on its proper footing; but perhaps his design was not so extensive.

The Practice of Midwifery, with the Anatomy of the Gravid Uterus. By a Pupil of Dr. W. Hunter. 8vo. 2s. Flexney.

It is intended, we find, to publish a system of anatomy, surgery, and midwifery, by subscription, in one volume, quarto; and this work is a part of the larger one. By the designation of the author, and from this specimen, it is probable that the system is to be either that of the late Dr. Hunter, or one very nearly resembling it. We dare not say, that it is to be a copy of his lectures, though the part before us resembles greatly what we once heard in Windmill-street. It is sufficiently exact, but not, we think, sufficiently full. No more copies are to be printed than are subscribed for.

A Treat

A Treatise on Fevers; wherein their Causes are exhibited in a new Point of View. 8vo. 1s. Scatchard and Whitaker.

These remarks were made, we find, in the years 1769 and 1770; but they are intended as an answer to the questions of the Royal Society at Paris on the cause and most effectual methods of preventing the progress of infection. The Society, however, was not instituted till 1776, and their question was, on the best prophylactic method of securing any individual from contagion. In reality, though dignified by a connection with this very respectable Society, and honoured with the title of novelty, this system is a very old one. It was published in Sweden by Linnæus, and has been expanded in various volumes of the *Acta Naturæ Curiosorum*, as well as in other German publications. All disorders arise, in our author's opinion, from animalcules, and our only object is to kill them. Fevers are particularly noticed in this work; but we must expect to receive the whole system very shortly. Our author seems a little better informed than projectors usually are; but there are numerous mistakes in this pamphlet, not only in the explanation of facts, but in the relation of them.

P O E T R Y.

Poems on Slavery: by Maria Falconar, aged 17, and Harriet Falconar, aged 14. 12mo. 1s. Murray.

These Poems are written in a pleasing manner; the sentiments they contain, and the numbers in which they are conveyed, reflect credit on the young authors. The reader must not expect, however, any thing peculiarly excellent or striking; and the subject itself almost precludes any novelty of ideas. The first poem is somewhat superior to the other; but if we make allowance for the difference of age between these young, and we trust friendly, competitors for literary fame, the balance may be thought, by some, to preponderate in favour of the younger. On the whole, their merits may be considered as nearly equal. *Arcades ambo, & cantare pares.*

The Fourth Book of Virgil's Æneid, translated into English Verse. By John Morrison. 8vo. 1s. Lowndes.

An Irregular Ode to General Elliot. By H. F. Cary. 4to. Piercy at Birmingham.

These productions, like the preceding article, may be considered as specimens of the maturity, shall we call it *prematurity* of talents in the present age. We have had dancers on the rope, whose contemporaries were scarcely able to walk: composers in music at the time their seniors were learning to spell; and boys, not in their teens, translating Pindarics from the Greek. From the numerous juvenile performances which have of late appeared before us, and which have generally possessed a far superior degree of merit to what might reasonably be expected, the present era may not unaptly be characterised

as the *hot-bed age of genius*. Its productions, to carry on the figure, are often curious from their early appearance, and sometimes delicious, but they are generally too tender to endure the bitter blasts of criticism; they seldom last like those that take root in a natural soil, and which, though slower in their growth, commonly acquire at last a more exalted flavour, and a more permanent duration. The merit of these young authors, like that of the muse-inspired sisters, appears to us nearly equal. The first probably is superior as a scholar, but the other seems to possess more fire and original spirit.

Sop in the Pan for Peter Pindar, Esq. or, a late Invitation to Cheltenham: a Burlesque Poem. By Pindaromastix. 4to. 1s. 6d. Robinsons.

As our bard has omitted a very salutary custom, a custom introduced by the great Peter himself, we shall endeavour to supply its place, and give a Pindaric summary of the substance of this same Sop, which we cannot commend as a very savoury one.

The Mastix invoketh Peter, and adviseth him to tickle the king with an ode at Cheltenham: he urgeth him in hopes of being made court-buffoon. The king is introduced, saving the reader's presence, under the operation of this same water; but from the quickness of the transition, a truly Pindaric one, the voice seemeth to proceed from something below the king. The voice praiseth Peter and his works. Peter answereth in royal, quick repeated words; but the voice telleth him that such repetitions are improper, and Peter promises amendment. The voice consulteth Peter about ministers, and Peter recommends C—F—, or the D— of P—; but the voice rejecteth them. Now Peter is supposed to be exalted to a courtly office; and the Mastix apologises for him, from the universal influence of a bribe.

We cannot say much in favour of this work: it was not surely written by a friend in disguise; yet it is no bad foil, to set off the brilliancy of Peter's wit and humour.

The Triumph of Volpone; or, a Peep behind the Curtain at the Westminster Election. 4to. 1s. Axtell.

We can only commend the smoothness of the lines; it is in other words an election squib, in which the merits of the different candidates are celebrated with some justness, if we allow for a little party predilection. The motto 'quid debeat; quid non,' may aptly enough point out, with a few exceptions, the general tendency of the poem, if we translate it,

Content to dwell in decencies for ever.

Ode by Dr. Samuel Johnson to Mrs. Thrale. 4to. 1s. Faulder.

We have not seen a more bare-faced catchpenny; for a drauling reader might peruse, with ease, these lines in three minutes. The Ode is supposed to have been written by Johnson when

he had hopes of obtaining Mrs. Thrale's hand. One stanza, however, is not bad, but one alone we can rescue from oblivion.

'To rich felicity thus rais'd,
My bosom glows with amorous fire;
Porter no longer shall be prais'd;
—'Tis I myself am Thrale's Entire!'

The Ode contains forty-eight lines only.

D R A M A T I C.

Ways and Means; or, a Trip to Dover. A Comedy, in three Acts, as it is performed at the Theatre-Royal, Hay-market. Written by George Colman, junior. 8vb. 1s. 6d. Robinsons.

This pleasant comedy is, we find, the elder branch, though *Incle and Yarico* had the good fortune to be first introduced to public notice. It is the flight summer silk, adapted to the warm weather in the Hay-market; and, though the story has little novelty, and the denouement wants the assistance of doors and chairs, yet the lively dialogue, the humorous equivoques, the character of Sir Dunder, which, though not wholly new on the stage, is not common, and the varied personages of the scene, render the play very entertaining and interesting.

The subject of this comedy is the stratagem of two modern beaux, who follow two sisters, whom they saw at Bath, to their residence near Dover. They are suspected by their landlord, in consequence of the equivocal information of a roguish valet, to be merchants. While they are at Dover, contriving means to be introduced to their mistresses, they are seen by the ladies' father, Sir David Dunder, a whimsical, blundering, hospitable baronet, who knows each reply from the first words, and contributes to deceive himself. We shall introduce him.

'Enter Random and Scruple.

'Rand. Nay, prithee Scruple, one turn on the quay, and—Who is he? Egad, the same queer fellow we observ'd just now under the window.

'Scrup. Right, giving orders to his coachman.

'Sir Dav. Gentlemen, your servant.

'Both. Sir, your very obedient!

'Sir Dav. My landlord tells me—honest Paul here—you've just left London. Good journey, I hope. Our town of Dover is but an odd whimsical sort of a—eh!—and, after the city, you think it a damn'd dirty, dingy kind of a—umph!

'Scrup. Why, sir, at present, we can't say we are tir'd of the exchange.

'Sir Dav. The exchange! O, ho! Paul's right—(*Aside.*) I know it—The Exchange, as you say, for people in your situation, is much pleasanter.

'Scrup. Sir! our situation!

'Sir Dav. Be quiet; my host has let me into your characters.

'Rand.

* *Rand.* The devil he has! And how should he know any thing of—?

* *Sir Dav.* Nay, don't be angry—no harm—Mere inuendo—did'nt tell, plump,—talk'd of your dealings.

* *Scrup.* Dealings!

* *Rand.* Why, zounds! the scoundrel has not presum'd to—

* *Sir Dav.* Must be rich—damn'd crusty.—(*Aside.*) You're right, tho' can't be too cautious. I would not wish to pry. Mean nothing but respect, upon my soul. How many clerks do you keep?

* *Both.* Clerks!

* *Sir Dav.* Can't do without them, you know. Fine folks tho', all you, eh? Props of the public—bulwarks of Britain. Always brought forward as an example to the world. Been in the stocks lately, gentlemen?

* *Scrup.* Hell, and the devil!

* *Sir Dav.* That's right, don't tell. I like you the better. You see what I know of you, and—

* *Rand.* Sir, we suspect what you imagine—and—

* *Sir Dav.* I know it. You wonder to see me so devilish distant. I live but a mile off—Lady Dunder—a sweet, fine, fat woman—my wife by the bye—will be happy to entertain gentlemen of—

This speech is abruptly broken off by the surprize of the sharpeners. They gain admission; and, intending to carry away their mistresses, are discovered. But the whole is reconciled by the sudden appearance of Random's father, who, returning from the South of France, where he had been for the recovery of his health, finds out his son in consequence of being arrested instead of him, as their names were the same. This is a short analysis of the story, which wants some little assistance from the imagination to bring it within the strict rules of dramatic probability. Yet this fault is not easily perceived. The play has pleased on the stage; and, if it takes its proper line in the critical code, and not aim at the dignity of regular comedy, we are not willing to oppose the decisions of the spectator.

The Prisoner at Large: a Comedy, in two Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal in the Hay market, with universal Applause. Written by John O'Keeffe. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

Though the foundation of this after-piece be highly improbable, and consequently exceptionable, though some of the incidents are too farcical, yet the whole is highly humorous and pleasing. If lord Elmond had been released in any other way, and been attached on his return by an English bailiff, much of the difficulty would have been avoided. There are so many truly comic situations, such a display of peculiar character, sketched out with a glowing, but an incorrect pencil, that we greatly regret its not having been finished with more exactness, and worked up into a regular comedy of five acts.

Tale,

NOVELS.

Tales Entertaining and Sympathetic, inscribed to the Heart. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

We suspect that these tales are collected from some old Magazines: we can describe them only by negatives. They are not entertaining or sympathetic; they can neither affect the heart or the head: in short, we have scarcely ever seen a collection so insipid and uninteresting.

St. Julian's Abbey, a Novel, in a Series of Letters. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

These volumes are in the modern dress, but the story is old; the manners are those of the last century. Though there is much murder, there is scarcely any pathos: St. Julian's abbey may amuse a winter's evening, if the reader looks not for probability, and is not disgusted by absurdity.

The Embarrassed Attachment, in a Series of Letters. By Miss Charlotte Elizabeth Sanders. For the Author at the Literary Press.

This is the idle romantic fiction of a young mind, with little probability and less interest. To recover a lover, supposed to have been drowned, and a father cast on the coast of Guinea, are too much for one work. We would recommend better employment; for, as an author, miss Sanders will never succeed. If these are the bantlings of the literary press, we sincerely hope that we shall not have a more numerous acquaintance in this family.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Defence of the Protestant Clergy in the South of Ireland; in Answer to the Charges against them. 8vo. 2s. Robson and Clarke.

Mr. Grattan, in a speech said to be delivered in February last, in the Irish house of commons, moved for a committee to enquire whether any just causes of 'discontent exists among the people of the province of Munster, and the counties of Kilkenny and Carlow, on account of tythe, or the collection of tythe.' In the course of the speech, some severe reflections are said to have been cast on the clergy, who appear to have been represented as eager and avaricious extortioners. This accusation our author examines with great mildness and apparent accuracy; he considers the subject of tythes, with the different accusations, in various lights; he endeavours to obviate what he supposes to be misrepresentations, or to erase any unfavourable impressions which the speech may have made.

Hints, &c. submitted to the Attention of the Clergy, Nobility, and Gentry, newly associated. By a Layman. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

If the associated noblemen and others, who appear to have joined in a zealous support of the king's late proclamation, would
be

be of real service, it is, in our author's opinion, by individually exerting themselves to restore the true spirit of religion, by a compliance with its ordinances. A great support to this cause would arise also from a number of well disposed dissenters, if the liturgy were again reviewed, and its obnoxious parts either corrected or expunged. Our author gives a short history of the liturgy, and shows pretty clearly, that it was not, at its establishment, considered as perfect; and that, in future periods, many of the best divines in the highest stations of the church have entertained the same opinion. This period, from various considerations, he thinks well adapted to a review and a reform. While we confess the utility, we own that we have some doubts about the expediency of a reform: yet, as on this subject our opinion would have little influence, we need not be explicit in ascertaining or declaring it. It is enough to remark that this writer displays much candour and an extensive acquaintance with the subject.

A Dialogue betwixt a Master and his Scholar. By F. Wragg. 8vo.
15. Hookham.

The master instructs his scholar in various points, and treats of the assumed dignity of some of the clergy; the real advantages of an University education, which he seems to undervalue too much; the use of our reason in religious enquiries, and of those points in which it must give way to Revelation; a plan for a reconciliation of parties, and a demonstration of the existence and government of God. Our author appears to be rational and well-disposed, but he has suffered greatly from the carelessness of his printer, particularly relating to a plenum and a vacuum, where his opinion, we find, is entirely misrepresented.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

WE have received Mr. Renwick's letter, and are sorry to observe, that we fear his bookseller's opinion is a just one; yet we will still hope that a genuine tale of unmerited distress may obtain attention; and that its author, at once the hero and the victim, may not be without his share of regard.

WE are sorry that the request from the neighbourhood of Warwick came so late; but when we had seen the preface, we should have been as cautious, even for the author's sake, of admitting the testimony of a partial friend as of an open enemy. On the whole, the former is generally most injurious.

WE would readily have obliged our 'Constant Correspondent,' but we have not yet received the work alluded to.

FROM a mistake of our compositor, several observations were omitted on the Tragedies of Sophocles, after the last quotation, p. 87. The anachronism, which is alluded to in the last three lines, occurred in a speech of Œdipus in Dryden's and Lee's play of that name:

'Oh that as oft I have at Athens seen
The *stage* arise, and the big clouds descend.'

